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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 23, 1909.

The Week.

In his speech at Des Moines in regard to the regulation of railway rates, President Taft began with a frank declaration that the Interstate Commerce Commission's powers, as enlarged by the Hepburn Railway Rate law of 1906, had not furnished the expected relief against discriminating rates. This has resulted chiefly, in the President's view, from the delays incident to the appeal from the Commission's decisions, to courts with an already overcrowded docket. Mr. Taft proposes a new court of five judges, whose jurisdiction shall extend primarily and specifically to appeal cases in interstate commerce. A further obstacle has been the present restriction of the Commission's own supervision of rates to cases where formal complaint was made by an aggrieved shipper. This situation the President would remedy by so extending the Commission's powers that it may institute complaints by itself. Noticing, also, a fact familiar to all railway and commercial people during the three past years—that, without a formal advance in rates for given commodities, the change has been made in a left-handed way through transferring such commodities to a different "classification," bearing a different rate—Mr. Taft urges extension of the Commission's authority so that it may entertain complaints, not only against unjust rates, but against unjust classification.

The general public will probably be more widely stirred by the President's recommendation that the Commission be hereafter empowered to regulate the issue of railway securities. What the law, in Mr. Taft's judgment, ought definitely to contain is this:

> Prohibition against an interstate railroad company acquiring stock in any competing railroad in the future, and a further provision that no railroad engaged in interstate commerce shall, after a certain date, hold stock in a competing railroad, and the further amendment that after the passage of the amending act no railroad company engaged in interstate commerce shall issue any additional stock or bonds or other obligations, except with the approval of the commission, based upon a finding by the commission that the same are issued, first, for purposes authorized by law, and, second, for a price not less than par for stock, and not less than the reasonable market value for bonds, such price being paid either in cash or in property or services, and if in property or services, then at the fair value thereof as determined by the commission.

It is scarcely necessary, with the reviews of Mr. Harriman's career in Union Pacific so fresh in the public mind, to point out the highly important bearing which a provision of this nature would have on current railway finance. The powers proposed are large, and it is not to be denied that occasions may arise when their employment will involve a delicate situation—something which happened very recently, in the use of the same authority by the Public Service Commission of this State, in the matter of the Erie Railroad's bond issue. Yet, on the other hand, it cannot be questioned that a grave danger has existed in the field of railway finance, under latter-day methods, and that no practicable way of averting it appears to exist, short of public supervision under a plainly restrictive law.

The romance of the polar seas is strikingly illustrated by the narratives from the Roosevelt of Peary's assistants. Nothing has so fascinated the imagination of those who read of the Arctic as its ability to preserve the relics of the past. Elsewhere the dead wither and decay, and houses and their fittings return to dust, but the icy grip of the Polar regions preserves with wonderful tenacity. The relics of Sir John Franklin's expedition, found twelve years after by Capt. McClintock, told the story of its melancholy end. But even this discovery could have been little more impressive than Mr. McMillan's entering the home of the ill-fated Greely expedition, and finding everything intact, even the food eatable a quarter of a century after it had been abandoned by the men who left it, some to perish, some to rise to military distinction. The relics of the Polaris expedition recall vividly the story of that ill-fated undertaking, while those belonging to the venture of Sir George Nares bring to mind an even earlier period of Arctic exploration. Incidentally, it must be noted that these reports from Peary show that his sledging and hunting parties covered a surprising amount of ground with amazing thoroughness and success.

The defeat of all the Constitutional amendments submitted to the voters of New Jersey is the more to be regretted in that it was effected by so small a poll. Less than 20 per cent. of the electors took the trouble to cast a ballot. Yet here was at least one matter of the highest importance—the reform and reorganization of the courts—which had been forcibly pressed upon the attention of the people of the State. The Governor had made speeches upon the subject; the leading members of the bar had organized and worked to secure the desirable change in the judicial system; eminent and impartial members of the judiciary itself had recommended it; newspapers had kept it before their readers. But all these efforts could not break through the general indifference, which permitted the secret agreements of party politicians to defeat the salutary reform by a handful of votes. This unhappy result is one which the advocates of the referendum are bound to weigh. The New Jersey experience is in line with many other lamentable failures to induce American voters to take interest in Constitutional amendments, or general proposals of legislation. Local and municipal elections, as in Cleveland, have sometimes been of the nature of a referendum, and have been hotly contested; but, in general, the method seems to be badly fitted to the habits and desires of the American democracy.

It is a true national loss which we suffer in the death of Gov. Johnson of Minnesota. He had long since risen above the stature of a State Executive, and was seen afar by the whole country. Death has again stricken down a rising hope of the Democratic party. As in the case of Gov. W. E. Russell of Massachusetts, a born leader has been cut off in his prime; and men look at each other and ask why misfortune pursues a party that never had so great need of its best men as at the moment when they are forever lost to it. One reason why Gov. Johnson drew the hearts of the people after him, was that his career was of a sort that we like to think

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typically American. He began life in the most humble circumstances, and had to fight his way against obstacles that would have daunted a man of less firm fibre. Moreover, like Lincoln, the long and hard struggle to get himself clear of the rock upon which Nature had cast him as a bantling, left him full of human sympathies and kindliness, and able to enter understandingly into the lot of every toiler. The pang of sorrow at his untimely death will be widespread, because men in all the land will feel, as Lowell said they did when Lincoln was taken, that "their manhood had lost a kinsman."

The motor car, and what it represents, is doing its deadly work in idealistic Kansas. Chancellor Strong of the University of the State sounds a note of alarm and warning against the growing degeneracy of the scholastic youth. "Overflowing granaries and bulging banks" are beginning to have their insidious influence on the rugged Western stock. The boys in the university, who, in former times, studied with an eagerness which put to shame the lackadaisical "dudes" of the Eastern colleges, now are beginning to give themselves up to the soft dalliance of the automobile and the kindred things which work destruction. Our hopeful poets still sing about the West. William Allen White, for instance, is shocked by the effeminacy of old Europe, and heralds, in letters and in interviews on his return, the sterling virtues of Emporia, Kansas. Gov. Johnson called the West to arms against the tyranny of the East. But this very intensity is a symptom of unacknowledged decay. William Allen White is more extreme than he would be if the virtues he proclaims were an unconscious part of the being of his State. Westerners are now so conscious of their ruggedness that it has become, perhaps, already a tradition, rather than a reality. We passionately praise what is about to pass away. We cling in our minds to the fine old virtues, as we sadly yield ourselves in reality to demoralizing luxury. This seems to be the feeling of Chancellor Strong of the University of Kansas.

Blue Sunday is not the proper color term to describe the American idea of the Sabbath as opposed to the so-called "Continental" day of rest. The American Sunday is now become a blue, red, green, yellow, and purple day, testifying, by the litter of comic-supplement lithography which overflows from the sitting room to the sidewalk and from the porch to the lawn, how a great Christian nation spends its Sabbath. Fortunately, there are signs of growing opposition to the pictorial vulgarities on which our children have been fed. The Boston *Herald*, which last year abolished its Sunday comic supplement, has found no reason to repent its action; far from it. At the recent national convention of the Catholic Educational Association, the Parish School Department entered heartily into the campaign against the Yellow Kid art, and called upon Catholic parents "to cooperate by word and example in the extermination of the evil." The diocese of Philadelphia is preparing to take up the fight against the "scandalous evil which corrupts manners, language, filial respect, and the sense of reverence for age and suffering." To us the æsthetic implications of the comic supplement have been as poignant as the ethical. That a nation exceptionally gifted with the sense of humor should be brutalized down to the level of the horse laugh, is a sad thing indeed.

John Bigelow's protest against the Hudson-Fulton celebration will undoubtedly find considerable echo. There have been those from the beginning who have felt aggrieved that so great an expenditure of money was to be lavished upon a passing show, leaving nothing behind in the way of a permanent memorial, save one monument. Had not there been a revival of prosperity, these grumblings would have been louder, even though the money is to be largely expended in New York city and is making work for many hands for a few days or weeks. But while one may heartily sympathize with Mr. Bigelow's wish that instead of by pageants, the explorer and the inventor should be honored by the purification of the Hudson River, there is much to be said in behalf of an occasional holiday of the kind now planned. If it is, after all, a Roman holiday, *panem et circenses* for the crowd, it can be maintained that an occasional outing for the people in a land singularly destitute of fiestas, sadly lacking in gayety, and taking its limited amusements with the strenuousness of baseball competitions, is not without its genuine value. Recreation and relaxation have their worth, even from the industrial point of view. The wages some may lose in the turmoil may be made up in the increased efficiency which comes from a break in routine, an escape from the treadmill of the worker who never leaves the city's streets and toils, year in, year out.

A weakness in Lord Rosebery is pointed out by the London *Nation*. Lord Rosebery's virtual secession from Liberalism to Conservatism, in connection with his recent speech on the Budget, is an event, it maintains, of no special importance. It is merely interesting, "like Blériot's capture of a momentary 'record,'" but it has little real weight of influence. "It was so with Lord Rosebery's Premiership. It was so with his Chesterfield speech. Nothing happens as a result of his innumerable excursions, alarums, appeals, perorations, and protests. . . . With him all is pose. . . . An epigram or two, an emotional triumph, a plausible representation of a national mood, a storm of applause, and the accomplished artist disappears, as the *diva* retreats to the wings, bowing and pressing to her bosom the tributes of an enraptured 'house.'" The article presents Lord Rosebery as a mere orator, who with grace and charm expresses thoughts without coherence or progressive effect. He is not a definite influence either by his faults or his virtues. Removed from the need of making personal profit of any kind from politics, there is no lofty substitute, such as serious public service, which takes its place. Lack of seriousness all around brings in the note of civilized frivolity. Few of our politicians can be accused of this. If they are kept serious by no higher purpose than to "serve" some interest, they have, at any rate, that anchor.

A German writer in the London *Daily Mail* expresses the amazement which observant Germans and Americans invariably feel on reaching London and viewing the sickening squalor of the poor. Poor there are in New York and Berlin, as well as elsewhere; but in no city is poverty so repulsive as in the English capital. The *Mail's* contributor, Dr. Oscar Schwermer, saw in Hoxton Market what he had never beheld before—wo-

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men and children so filthy that he was afraid to touch them. Yet he, like other residents of the Continent, had always believed the English to be personally the cleanliest people in the world. The reason, he thinks, is that Germans are taught cleanliness in schools and in the army, and that dirty, ill-kept tramps are not permitted to wander abroad for long without being put to work. The dirty school child is sent home, and the police see to it, if the parents do not heed the first warning, that repeated offences are made impossible. Dr. Schwermer feels, too, that much British unemployment is not due to lack of work, but to lack of a desire to work. "We have no unemployed question [in Berlin]," writes Dr. Schwermer, "and no poorhouses. I do believe that this latter fact is one of the reasons why we have no unemployed to deal with." England's liberal policy of poor relief has long been held to be a method of creating poverty, and her universal old-age pensions just established make in the same direction by destroying one of the chief incentives to saving and industry. Yet it would be idle to deny that there are heartrending cases of genuine lack of employment in all the British cities.

The adequate way in which some German municipalities take care of their citizens is shown by the city of Ulm. That town has so well solved the question of homes for workingmen and clerks that social-political students, not only from other parts of Germany, but from England, Japan, Italy, Norway, Austria, Russia, and Switzerland, have gone there for light on the "home" problem. During a period of some twenty years, the city has acquired ownership of large tracts of land for the purpose of securing for the poorer class of the population cheap, good, and healthy homes; an object already realized to a surprising degree of completeness. The experiment was tried first on a small scale. Land in an outlying part of the city was bought, small but good houses, each with a garden, were built upon it, and then sold to persons of moderate means in the most reasonable way, so that a workingman could, after a number of years, own his own home. The aim has been achieved to the extent that now the workingmen and clerks of Ulm are in large measure provided with well-built, healthy, and cheap homes. "Order, cleanliness, and happiness" are the rule in Ulm. The death-rate is noticeably lower than in other cities of Germany, while mortality among small babies has fallen very low. Many other public improvements have, of course, contributed to this general well-being. The city neglects no matter touching the good of the citizens. This naturally involved great public expenditures, and yet Ulm's tax-rate is lower than any other city of Würtemberg. There is in Ulm, therefore, not the slightest murmur when further measures are taken to acquire more municipally-owned land and to increase building by the city. If we had only one city in the United States which to this degree should combine light taxation with effective city government, we might trust municipalities with more widely extended functions than we are to-day inclined to do.

The instinct for ornamentation of Paris goes on unchecked. The Rond-Point of the Champs Elysées is to have four colossal statues, by as many sculptors, answering to the labels of Summer and Winter, Day and Night. Early next month, Rodin's statue of Victor Hugo will be unveiled. A monument to Oscar Wilde, designed for Père Lachaise, is under way. A statue to the revolutionist Marat is also projected. An equally subversive man, in another field, Catulle Mendès, is to be celebrated in external form, and Baron Haussmann, who modernized the external old Paris, is to have a monument. It is said that a new association, which certainly sounds Parisian enough, is to be formed, called "The Association Commemorative of the Great Forgotten Ones." Among other great unknowns, the inventor of the corkscrew is contemplated as a subject for plastic notice. Imagine the enthusiasm that such a statue would cause among the habitués of the "Art" cafés in Montmartre and Montparnasse! At last, the favorite source of inspiration for the minor poet and the soul-analyzing artist would be officially recognized.

If anything were needed to prove the innate depravity of the Japanese, the recent speech of Premier Katsura should suffice. He actually informed the Bankers' Club in Tokio that his government would continue to avoid unproductive expenditure so far as possible. Not only is he going to devote $26,500,000 towards the redemption of bonds next year, but he actually hopes to lower the rate of taxation. If final proof of his duplicity were needed, it is surely to be found in his statement that there is to be no increase in army and navy burdens. We think that every one will see that this is merely an Oriental ruse to lull foreign nations, and particularly the United States, into security, while he constructs, in the interior of Japan, a large number of battleships for that sudden raid which our naval officers still expect may take place next week or next month, they are not certain which. Last year the Japanese government actually made a serious effort to retrench. If Katsura continues this policy, it may be that after a while he will convince some people against their will that the nation's eyes are bent not on conquest but on internal growth.

The progress of the anti-opium campaign in China, down to November, 1908, is treated in a parliamentary paper embodying the report of the British commercial attaché at Peking. The report contains good news and bad, with the former decidedly predominant. Like every other movement in that bulky and limping empire, the fight against opium is a real fight in some provinces and a delusion in other provinces, according to the character of the local officials. In the metropolitan province of Chihli, the reform is prosecuted with "earnestness and vigor." In Shansi, "official professions are excellent," but not very much has been done. Shensi, Kansu, and Manchuria show apathy, but in Yunnan, second in importance of the opium-growing provinces, the governor-general predicts the wiping out of all traces of opium "in a few months." Not the least encouraging feature of the report, however, is the indicated growth of a strong public sentiment against the use of the drug. In Shanghai and Canton, where the opium-houses were the gathering places of the fashionable youth, the resorts are now shunned. "It is doubtful," says the report, "whether any question has ever stirred the Chinese Empire so profoundly as that of opium suppression; and public opinion, backed by a young but growing patriotism, is gradually but surely branding opium smoking as an evil that must be eradicated."

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PINCHOT VS. BALLINGER.

The long and bitter dispute which has raged about the acts and the policy of the Secretary of the Interior, has now been judicially reviewed by the President. His letter, published on Thursday of last week, reads exactly as if it were headed: "Pinchot vs. Ballinger. Opinion by Mr. Justice Taft." It is the calm and complete decision of a judge. All the rumors, all the excited charges, all the recriminations have been brought to the test of law and fact. The judgment rendered is impersonal and dispassionate. It is not too much to say that it disposes of the whole case. The President could have given no better proof, on the eve of his Western journey, of his desire and his ability to do exact justice, than he has furnished in this remarkable and conclusive review of a heated controversy.

He puts it beyond a peradventure that the accusations levelled at Secretary Ballinger, and, by inference, against the Administration, were made in ignorance of the facts. One of the minor charges against Mr. Ballinger was that he had, before becoming a member of the Cabinet, acted as counsel for the so-called "Cunningham claimants" to coal lands in Alaska. The Guggenheims and other monopolistic interests were supposed to be behind these dubious claims, and the Secretary was pictured as their tool in office. But now the facts are set forth, and show that Mr. Ballinger appeared for a single claimant, found and so advised him that his patent could not be confirmed, and charged him for this service and travelling expenses $250. Since then, the Secretary has had nothing to do in any way with these claims.

The great reverberation, however, has been over the revocation of the Roosevelt withdrawal of public land that might be used for water-sites. In this we were asked to see the sinister influence of the "Water-Power Trust." The story went that thousands of acres which were withdrawn by executive order last January, and many valuable sites for water-power, had been greedily snapped up, when that order was revoked. But what are the facts? The Roosevelt order was issued with characteristic impetuosity and sloppiness. It covered 1,200,000 acres which could not possibly be used for water power, and which ought to be open to settlement. Moreover, it was so hastily and carelessly drawn that it *"failed to include many valuable water-power sites in the immediate vicinity."* These have since been withdrawn from entry by this negligent Administration. And what shall be thought of the main charge, that the public domain had been turned over to the Water-Power Trust, when we read the cold fact that "not one single filing on any of the water-power sites has been attempted since the original order"? The angry assertions made at the Irrigation Congress and elsewhere, and echoed through a portion of the press, are thus seen to be wholly without foundation. What the new Administration has done is to seek to proceed legally and surely, where its predecessor dashed ahead without looking up either the statutes or the facts. The water-power question is now attacked in a scientific way. From the Geological Survey accurate knowledge has been obtained as a basis for executive action, and the result has been—and this is the coldest douche for the inflamed Rooseveltians in all Mr. Taft's letter—

> There are now withheld from settlement, awaiting the action of Congress, *fifty per cent. more* water-power sites than under previous withdrawals, and this has been effected by a withdrawal from settlement of *only one-fifth* of the amount of land.

Having knocked the underpinning of fact from beneath the feet of his assailants—for, of course, they were striking at him through Secretary Ballinger—the President proceeds to read them a lesson in law. He points out that the holding up of certain contracts made by the Reclamation Service was due to an opinion of the Attorney-General that they had been made, not only without warrant of law, but in defiance of an explicit provision of the reclamation act. Furthermore, the refusal to carry out a "contract made in the last Administration," by which the work of conserving forests on Indian reservations was to be turned over to the Forestry Bureau, was a necessary consequence of the decision of the Comptroller that there was no authority for it in law. This brings out clearly the new point of view. The old way was as Secretary Garfield wrote, to take the ground that "if there be no power" conferred by statute, "it is the duty of the Executive" to make a law temporarily, "until Congress may have the opportunity to adopt the appropriate legislation." Mr. Willard French, who, in confessed ignorance of the facts, writes in this week's *Independent* on "The Seizure of the People's Water Power," puts it in this way: "The central question is whether he is the better lawyer who acts only under specific legal provision, or he who acts without specific provision, provided his action is . . . in sympathy with the spirit of existing laws." Against such loose doctrines, easily running into the grossest forms of Executive usurpation and tyranny, President Taft asserts himself in language that is really an end of controversy:

> In my judgment, he is the best friend of the policy of conservation of natural resources who insists that every step taken in that direction should be within the law and buttressed by legal authority. Insistence on this is not inconsistent with a whole-hearted and bona fide interest and enthusiasm in favor of the conservation policy.

We do not imagine, and probably Mr. Taft does not, that his letter will still the raging of the heathen. As their clamor was essentially irrational, they cannot be quieted by mere reason. So soon as these gentlemen have recovered their breath, after Mr. Taft's body-blow, they will doubtless begin again to cry out and to cut themselves with knives, lamenting once more that the glorious work of the Roosevelt Administration is to be undone. That hysteria bids fair to persist and to have important political consequences. The mania will undoubtedly break out in an acute form next year, on the return of a distinguished traveller from Africa. By that time the veiled attacks upon Mr. Taft may become open. He can do nothing to prevent that. But he can prevent it from being anything but silly and futile, if he perseveres in his quiet purpose to decide honestly as a judge, and not as a politician, every large question that comes before him.

THE PLAN FOR A CENTRAL BANK.

Three speeches from responsible quarters have dealt with the possible reform of our banking and currency system through the establishment of a central bank. President Taft touched upon the project in his address to the Boston Chamber of Commerce. President George M. Reynolds of the Continental National Bank of Chicago, to whom Mr. Taft

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originally offered the Treasury Department, canvassed the proposition in great detail, in his presidential address to the bankers' national convention. Speaker Cannon, in some remarks to the same assembled bankers, set forth his personal views upon the subject.

Of the three, Mr. Cannon's remarks alone may be described as negligible. They merely reiterated the opinions of a narrow-minded and ill-informed public man, whose judgment on matters of the sort is usually the outcome of prejudice and ignorance. In his belief, the absurd Aldrich-Vreeland "emergency currency bill" of 1908 is a perfect measure which ought to be permanently incorporated in our statutes, and the conclusive argument for perpetuation of the existing banknote system is the fact that nobody ever lost any money through it. We shall waste no time in discussing Mr. Cannon's opinions.

Mr. Taft's speech is important, less for any light it throws on the problems surrounding the central bank than for the inference that the Administration is seriously considering that remedy. Advocacy of the central bank alternative, in Presidential messages and in Treasury reports, would ensure wide popular discussion of the plan. Secretary MacVeagh, however, has since then made it clear, in a statement through the *Evening Post*, that the Administration is not committed to the plan and is not likely to take any official position on it until the Monetary Commission shall have reported, which may be many months from now. Mr. Taft quoted Senator Aldrich—and the citation is certainly interesting—as submitting the two "indispensable requirements" in a central bank, "that control of the monetary system shall be kept free from Wall Street influences, and that it shall not be manipulated for political purposes." This is indeed a *sine qua non* in any such proposal, to a degree which people not conversant with recent banking and Wall Street history probably do not realize.

Mr. Reynolds's Chicago speech is a contribution of great value to the discussion; it is in fact the first detailed examination of the subject in the light of practical banking experience. The central bank is frankly advocated by Mr. Reynolds, but he recognizes the difficulties which would surround its practical organization and the restraints which judicious lawmakers would necessarily impose upon the scheme. Briefly summarized, his highly interesting stipulations, as to the scope and character of such an institution, are these: Its subscribed capital must be large enough to command confidence—not less than $100,000,000. Its shares may be offered either to other banks or to the general public; preferably the latter, with a government guarantee of a low dividend, profits above that dividend to go into the public treasury. The bank should be the sole depository of government funds, but should not be charged with individual responsibility for preserving the public credit. It should hold on deposit the reserves of national banks which perform the same function for the smaller national institutions.

Its discount business should be limited to credits of ninety days or less, based on real commercial transactions and with a sound endorsement, paper of a speculative character being rigidly and by law excluded. It should discount for the general public, but not take deposits from it. Notes issued by the central bank should be in part secured by a coin reserve, and the balance of security should be, not railway bonds or real estate mortgages, but the short-term commercial notes above described. The bank should be supervised by a board named by the President of the United States and the Treasury Department, and confirmed by the Senate. Shareholders should elect the regular board of directors, but the supervising board should have the power of naming the president and active managers.

Opinions will differ whether Mr. Reynolds's safeguards against intrusion of politics are sufficient to achieve that end; and it will also be observed that he does not deal with three important considerations—how the existing banknote currency is to be retired, how far the central bank, through branches or otherwise, shall compete with other institutions, and what shall be the ratio of coin reserve to note circulation. As it stands, his outline of the scheme provides an excellent basis for further expert discussion of the matter. The *Nation* is not prepared to adopt the project, however, until these and certain other considerations have been more fully debated. In particular, it is necessary to be always on one's guard against hasty analogies between the needs of the American banking and commercial organism, and those of other nations where the central bank is now in successful operation.

Prof. O. M. W. Sprague of Harvard University, in a recent number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, has summed up certain salient difficulties in the way of the plan proposed, which would run against even Mr. Reynolds's scheme of operation. We have not space to discuss them here at length; in general, they have to do with the inevitable and possibly very awkward concentration of reserves, in a country of such magnificent distances as ours; with the sectional protests which would certainly be aroused by concentrating in one place deposits of surplus public moneys, drawn by taxation from a thousand separate localties, and with the difficulty of earning even a moderate profit under the severe restrictions laid down for its banking business. We may suggest another weighty consideration—namely, would such a central bank, even under Mr. Reynolds's precautions for administration, serve the purpose of restraining excited trade and speculation through arbitrary raising of the prevalent discount rate, or would the tendency be to ease the path of banks whose own operations were helping financial and industrial inflation?

TAFT ON THE TARIFF.

If President Taft hoped by his long speech on the tariff to soften the heart of the Western cow, it is already obvious that he failed of his object. Instead of conciliating the low-tariff Republicans of the West, he has further enraged them. In place of an answering genial smile, he has got a howl. Even the incomplete collections made of Western newspaper opinion show that the President did not accurately gauge the sentiment of the West, or, if he did, trampled upon it. The political consequences of his speech, unless something be done to retrieve them, bid fair to be considerable. Predictions of the election of a Democratic House next year will be offered more confidently than before. Incidentally, the movement to unite the Democratic party in this State, and to make it fight squarely on the platform of a tariff for revenue

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only, cannot fail to get new impetus from this speech of the President's. Politically, it looks like a blunder.

Personally, President Taft again appears in it as a man striving to be entirely frank and judicial. Only, he has to confess that a protective tariff is a subject upon which it is terribly difficult to form an unbiassed opinion. There is something almost pathetic in the way in which this former judge, accustomed to having all the relevant facts given him before being asked to pronounce judgment, cries out at the impossibility of ascertaining the truth about the real effects of protective duties. "I have never known," said Mr. Taft, "a subject that will evoke so much contradictory evidence as the question of tariff rates." He added: "There ought to be other methods of obtaining the evidence and reaching the conclusion." That is honest, but it does not go very deep. It would have been more instructive if the President had proceeded to show why, in the nature of the case, protected manufacturers will not give truthful evidence, and why, in the bargaining and log-rolling and bribing which always attend the passage of a high-tariff bill, it is almost impossible to put your finger on the liars. No principle is involved except that of greed and grab. At the bottom of that well, truth is, indeed, apt to be invisible. If a definite test could be made of each duty—if the simple question were asked what rate would produce the most revenue—then we should know where we stood. But with all the personal bias and selfish scheming and political deception on a grand scale that go to the making of a protective tariff, it is no wonder that the President should confess, despairingly, that he is unable to separate the truth from the falsehood.

This being so, it is a pity that he should have allowed himself to be misled by prejudiced information. It is true that he spoke out manfully about the iniquities of the woollen schedules. In his opinion, the duties on woollen goods ought to have been lowered. Their retention, practically unchanged, he frankly admits to be one great blot upon the new tariff. But of the cotton schedules, he enters upon a labored and inconclusive defence. It is evident that he is not accurately informed on this subject. He can hardly have read Senator Dolliver's speech, made on the final passage of the bill, in which it was conclusively shown that the duties on cotton goods had been not only enormously and deceptively raised, but made much higher than the rates with which the cotton manufacturers assured the Ways and Means Committee they should be entirely content. If the President had looked carefully into the accessible facts, and ascertained who it was that, in conjunction with Senator Aldrich, grafted (the word has two meanings) these needless and artfully concealed cotton duties upon the bill, he must have classified the cotton schedule as a twin injustice with the woollen duties.

When President Taft declares the Payne bill to be the best tariff ever enacted by the Republican party, there is a sense in which his words are true. It does not turn upon a nice balance of increases and reductions in the bill. Nor is it merely a question whether there was sufficient revision downwards to constitute a fulfilment of the pledges made in the party platform and by the President. The critical thing is the undoubted fact that the President dragged a reluctant high-tariff party into admitting that tariff rates ought to be lowered, and then induced it to set about at least a certain degree of lowering. This is the large and significant fact which will stand out when the history of tariff changes in this country comes finally to be written. President Taft forced a new attitude upon Republicans. Even if grudgingly and angrily and inadequately, yet they began to face the other way and to abandon their old position that no protective duties could be too high. For this, Mr. Taft deserves all recognition; but the chiefly disappointing thing in his speech is his apparent willingness to let his work stop at this point. It is not simply that he discourages the idea of another general tariff revision during his Administration—nobody would urge that—but that he seems not disposed to get the full profit of the Tariff Commission. True, he speaks of his purpose to have full investigation made into the actual working of the tariff, at home as well as abroad, but he intimates that no legislative use will be made of the results thus reached. That may come later, he explains, but he himself contemplates sending no further tariff recommendations to Congress.

Now, that attitude, it seems to us, is virtually for the President to deny his own child. The very purpose of the Tariff Commission was to furnish a basis for legislation, from time to time. If given duties are found to work injustice, or hamper trade, why should they not be changed? Why is it not the duty of the President to act upon the information which his subordinates furnish him at his own request? This is no question of a disturbing general overhauling of the tariff. The point is purely whether a demonstrated wrong or harm should be left in the law, when a Presidential recommendation and an act of Congress could take it out. It is Mr. Taft's seeming unwillingness to press home his advantage which is most discouraging to those who have sought to hold up his hands in his fight with the high-tariff Bourbons.

THE MAKING OF BOOKS.

It happens to be a book on French architecture that raises in us an old query: How and why certain books are written. The general presumption is that every author looks into his own heart and writes, but many writers evidently do nothing of the cort. Impelled by lack of occupation, of money, or of both, to write a book, he, or more commonly she, prudently consults the publishers' lists and an unfocussed intellectual curiosity. Shall it be "Spanish Cathedrals" or "Family Life in Morocco"? No book on either subject has recently been written, and the latter topic would be timely. But the "Troubadours" is also an engaging theme. Would not "Wisdom of the East" be better worth reading up? More salable, perhaps, might be "How to Know the Oriental Rugs," or a "Bride's Breviary," culled from all literature. So the eminently impartial mind of the born bookmaker travails in the first pangs of authorship.

It is the first step that costs, for the subject once chosen, the book as infallibly writes itself as a snowball started down a slope becomes of monumental size. To seek to define these creative mysteries were perhaps indiscreet. Yet one may imagine the first visit to a public library, an dthe joyous consultation of the subject-catalogue. Here, perhaps, is one of those revulsions of spirit to which genius is prone, for a man or a woman with only one book to write certainly cannot read a hundred books by other people. A brief chat with a friendly sub-librarian smooths the way.

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He hints at German monographs, cursed in style but containing treasures of fact, latest discoveries in the field, or what not. But the bookmaker reads no German. The adviser takes another tack—suggests the encyclopædias. Bridling, the bookmaker explains that she is making a book, that she possesses the Britannica, and finds it inadequate; would the sub-librarian kindly recommend an authority not encyclopædically brief and not in German? Taking her measure, he recalls and recommends the book of one who consulted him in a similar spirit fifteen years ago, and turns to the routine task of persuading the young gentleman who asks for a lively novel that he really wants Thackeray.

Meanwhile, the contented bookmaker has commenced the reduction of the work of his or her predecessor into that raw material of manuscript notes wherefrom a new book may be framed. Besides the steady task of distilling the essence of the easiest book on the subject, there will be excursions and alarums into the general field. Bookmakers almost inevitably read the wrong things, but read a good deal they do. The notes take on a singularly readable quality. Having but half-knowledge or none, the zest of discovery, unchilled by considerations of mere accuracy, sustains the worker. Prince Kropotkin has noted the joys of reading a language that one barely understands. All the words and phrases are unstaled by familiarity. It is in this spirit that the bookmaker files commonplace upon commonplace until there is a sufficient mass to fill a book.

Here we seem to approach the solemn moment of literary creation itself—that moment in which inchoate materials are fused into a new and lovely form. But the case is really simpler than that. The bookmaker indulges none of the prodigalities of authorship. The plan, always the most obvious, usually that of the last bookmaker in the field, has been determined already. The notes, naturally, have not been made with pains, in order that some may be considered and thrown away. There is no nonsense about your bookmaker. All the material must go in, and when there is enough of it, from that day, like Francesca, she reads no more—except for copying off, the book is ready.

This at least is the end of it, you will say. Having given pleasure to its creator, its office is accomplished, oblivion awaits it. There could be no greater mistake. This ought to be the fate of such a book, but, as a matter of fact, no nautilus ever swam more proudly the sea than do these feather-headed books ride into popularity. It is such works that a regiment of agents impose blandly upon the unwilling, yet fascinated, farmer's wife. This provender is duly fed to thousands of women's clubs. The bookmaker is not without honor among publishers, and is mentioned respectfully by literary editors. And the book itself—even it does not die. After a fitting season, it is resolved into notes by a new bookmaker, recompacted into a book, re-eulogized, re-advertised, re-read. The phenomenon partakes of the cyclic character of cosmic processes.

Some impatient and cynical philosopher will ask, Why isn't the bookmaker found out? In a world where value persists, what keeps this literary comedy going at the public expense? Here we find something more than the universal love of illusion. The bookmaker has a very definite quality—that of being or simulating the average reader, and the product usually has the undeniable merit of readableness. The bookmaker has the plain man's cardinal virtue of not knowing much about the subject, but knowing what he likes. What he has happened to like in the desultory process of uncritical note-taking, Tom, Dick, and Harry are pretty sure to like in the equally casual process of reading. They trust the bookmaker, who is, or seems to be, their own kind. So the plumber of Rochester will buy a balm for lumbago more readily on the testimonial of the baker of Buffalo than on that of a banker from Chicago.

Yes, the bookmaker, if a most imperfect, is also a necessary institution. The problem is not how to abolish, but how to amend him. If one could add to his diffused curiosity a zeal for reasonably exact information, reinforce his industry with a modicum of scholarship, eliminate his trivialities without impairing his popular appeal, one might then hail him as a veritable apostle of education. Such bookmakers there have been. The ever-delightful Mrs. Jameson is, perhaps, the best instance. And, happily, such bookmakers there still are, though few.

FRENCH BOOKS OF HISTORY

PARIS, September 10.

The author's name alone is sufficient to accredit "Les Premières civilisations" (Leroux), by J. de Morgan, former director-general of the antiquities of Egypt and of late charged with the excavations at Susa, the capital of Darius and Xerxes. The book (600 pages, with 77 maps and 50 figures in the text, sold at 15 francs) is a continuous series of studies on pre-history and history to the end of the Macedonian Empire. This span of time reaches from the first signs of man's appearance on the globe to the end of Alexander's conquest, that is, to the beginning of Greco-Latin civilization. M. de Morgan long since published his researches on the Stone Age in Egypt. His present volume gives the views, and the reasons of them, of a scholar who, to special knowledge of several parts of his subject, joins the general culture needed to appreciate the results of the labor of others.

It is a long run down the ages of humanity to the subject of the posthumous volume of Achille Luchaire, "La Société française au temps de Philippe Auguste" (Hachette, 10 francs). This trained historian served his apprenticeship in episcopal and communal archives of mediæval France, and was at his best in a world still judged from the religious controversies of three hundred years later. Not that the present volume weaves any counter-legend of ideal Ages of Faith—rather the contrary. Court prelates who were comrades of warriors one hand's-breadth removed from brigands; country priests like the half-serfs from whom they sprang and whose life they shared; townsmen whose fearful commerce was slowly steering the community toward settled order, could scarcely compose a society productive of an English Sabbath. Yet those who care for this personal knowledge of bygone times will feel that the book, with all its completeness of documentary detail concerning civil and military society, does not take up so thoroughly the moral, religious, and mystical side of the times.

Ten of the twelve volumes devoted to "Paris: les anciens quartiers" (Michalon) have now appeared under the artistic direction of Georges Cain, with whose own writings they must not be confounded. The text is by various students, each of the quarter which he handles; it includes outlying places like Versailles and Saint Denis (each volume, with atlas of 40 plates, 8.50 francs). Although the interest is primarily attached to what still remains, underneath these Stones of Paris lie all the centuries of changing history.

While Philippe Auguste was building new walls round his enlarged Paris, a man who took his name from some obscure love of France began upsetting

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the world by turning his back on it. "Saint François d'Assise: sa vie et son œuvre" (Perrin), by Johannes Joergensen, a Danish convert to the religious faith of the Franciscans, is written after much study of all that relates to the saint, with natural enthusiasm, and not without side reference to the Protestant work of Paul Sabatier.

Those who care for the by-tracks of historical science will find interest in "Leibniz historien" (Alcan), by Louis Davillé, a new doctor of letters. It is an essay on the historian's activity and method, which are known to the general student only from the somewhat unfavorable correspondence with Bossuet.

"Les Aventures du Cardinal de Richelieu et de la Duchesse d'Elbœuf" (Sansot) is an anonymous account from the archives of the Château of Acy, such as must have made up the underground of recent French history when Leibnitz was young. What it says concerning the daughter of Henry IV and his Gabrielle, whose husband the terrible minister of Henry's son exiled from court, is of little interest to the veracity of history, for which we have to go to writers of our own day like Hanotaux, less open to the gossip of contemporary passion. The book has an introduction and notes by Baron A. de Maricourt.

In the quite serious, but very personal, series of the History of France *racontée à tous*, Casimir Stryienski of the French University publishes "Le Dix-huitième Siècle" (Hachette). It covers the period from the death of Louis XIV to the eve of the Revolution, years fertile in Mémoires, on which the author has drawn freely. He winds up with a chapter on the artistic and intellectual movement of this century of Voltaire and Madame Geoffrin. With this may be joined a book which belongs rather to the history of literature than to that of men, "Idées et doctrines littéraires du XVIIIe siècle" (Delagrave), by Prof. Francisque Vial and Louis Denise of the Bibliothèque Nationale. It gives the literary theories of a writing century from its prefaces and treatises—a work which has been already carried out for the preceding century.

Étienne Dejean, director at the Archives, in "Un Prélat indépendant au XVIIe siècle" (Plon), gives a first complete biography of Nicolas Pavillon, bishop of Alet (1637-1677). Even the managing courtiers at Versailles, whom he worried from his distant mountain perch among rudimentary populations, would have stared at his interesting France more than two hundred years later to the extent of such a volume. This, as might easily be divined, is due to the picturesque religious legend which has been built up, among Freethinkers as well as Protestants, around Jansenism, for which Pavillon is claimed. In reality, he signed his act of intellectual obedience to the Pope in a matter where the act of faith was not directly in question; and this true Jansenists refused to do. Confusion is also made between the episcopal pretentions of this bishop who was determined to manage his own diocese in his own way, whether for or against the Pope and King who had named him to it, and the theological assumptions of Jansenists and Gallicans (who are also confused together by most literary and historical writers on this subject, so foreign to their special knowledge). Many a living bishop, who perhaps voted Papal infallibility, has also had controversies with religious orders evangelizing on their own account in his preserves. This is not enough to make the austere bishop a Jansenist saint instead of a Roman Catholic, the more so as he, like the Jansenists themselves, had no tolerance of Huguenots. The real value of such a book is not in church history, in which it does not illustrate even our own Modernism, but in the history of the rude people whom he evangelized; just as the Jesuit Saint Francis Régis had done a generation before with the same faith and sacraments, prayers and commandments. That these people belonged to the Grand Monarch at Versailles—two extremes of a social scale difficult to understand amid the clouds of party and religious prejudice—greatly heightens the value of this history at first hand.

A study of Jansenism proper, from the Roman Catholic point of view, but with the erudition in Catholic theology and canon law which is so wanting to Sainte-Beuve and his followers, is contained in a substantial book by J. Paquier, doctor of letters, "Le Jansénisme" (Bloud), a study both in history and doctrine.

"Belles du Vieux Temps" (Émile-Paul), by the Vicomte de Reiset, who has specialized himself in the history of the later Bourbons, before and after the Revolution, is a lucid and authentic picture of the careers of certain *grandes dames*, *tragédiennes*, and other court adventuresses. "Souvenirs de Mademoiselle Duthé de l'Opéra—1748-1830" (Louis-Michaud), is a study in the *mœurs légères* of the eighteenth century, by Paul Ginisty, a writer of the personal side of history. Rose Duthé, whose career as a professional beauty brought her into close contact with most of the personages of the dying old régime, lived to cultivate the correctness of the Restoration, and she regaled her nineteenth-century acquaintances with piquant anecdotes of the perished grace and elegance of her youth.

The love letters of "Roland et Marie Phlipon—1777-1780" (A. Picard et fils) are real documents from a world in sentimental gestation, which was soon to sweep away forever the old-time elegance. Claude Perroud, who must now have published nearly every scrap of manuscript or contemporary record concerning Madame Roland, edits these 113 letters with introduction, explanatory commentary, and notes, with facsimiles of the handwriting and a plan. This young girl, who wrote like Rousseau's Héloïse, and her elderly admirer passed through all the regulation sentiments, although she, at least, was well settled in her mind from the beginning. The tragic fate which befell them in the revolutionary storm they and others like them had brought on warrants the sentimental interest of readers, while their public career throws light on much troublous history. With the abundance of documents published in order and commented by M. Perroud, there should surely be room for a definite life of Madame Roland. It would be very different from those hitherto published and would be immensely valuable.

S. D.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

The latest writer on the bibliography of Molière, Jules Le Petit in his "Bibliographie des principales éditions originales d'escrivains Français du XVe au XVIIIe siècle," Paris, 1888, says of the first edition of "Le Tartuffe," 1669: "On trouve indifféremment des exemplaires soit avec le titre ci-dessus 'le Tartuffe ou l'Imposteur,' soit avec le titre 'l'Imposteur ou le Tartuffe,' sans autre différence." He gives a reproduction of the "Tartuffe" title-page, but not of the other. It seems presumptuous for an American to be making comments upon the bibliography of Molière, but an examination of several copies of this play leads us to the conclusion that the "Imposteur" title is the earlier form, and that the other title was printed later and substituted for it.

The play was written in 1664, and the first three acts were given before Louis XIV on May 12 of that year. Some friends of the King felt themselves hurt by the satire and its public presentation was interdicted, but it was played a few times more in 1664 and 1665. These early references describe the play as "Tartuffe." The interdiction was removed in 1667 on condition that (in the words of Le Petit) "le nom de Tartuffe serait rayé du titre et de la liste des personnages et qu'un certain nombre de passages seraient adoucis." The comedy was then called "L'Imposteur," and the principal character was called Panulphe. It was first played in public on February 5, 1669. The diary of La Grange (one of the actors in Molière's troupe), the manuscript of which is preserved in the Archives of the Comédie Française, records under February "Piece Nolle de Mr de Molière Mardy 5me—Imposteur ou Tartuffe."

In the Rowfant copy with the "Imposteur" title-page there are two preliminary leaves only, the first the title, verso blank, the second the "Privilège" with the list of "Acteurs" on verso. This list contains eleven names only, one "Elmire" being omitted, and supplied in ink. In the copy with the "Tartuffe" title there are twelve preliminary leaves ā and ē, each six leaves, consisting of a blank leaf, title with verso blank, nine leaves of "Preface" and a leaf of "Privilège" with

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"Acteurs" on verso. The "Privilège" does not differ in the least from that in the other variety, but the list of "Acteurs" contains twelve names, the missing one "Elmire, Femme d'Orgon" being printed in. The preface is, according to Brunet, lacking in some copies. The body of the book, signatures A, B, C, and D, each 12 leaves, pp. 1-96, is absolutely the identical sheets in both.

The "Privilège," which is dated March 15, 1669, grants permission to Molière himself "de faire imprimer, vendre & debiter par tel Libraire ou Imprimeur qu'il voudra choisir, une Piece de Theatre de sa composition intitulée l'Imposteur." At the bottom is "Achevé d'imprimer pour la premiere fois, le 23. Mars 1669."

The headline throughout is "L'Imposteur" on the left hand pages and "Comedie" on the right hand pages, except the last, p. 96, where the headline is "L'Imposteur, Com."

There is a counterfeit edition with an "Imposteur" title-page, with different imprint and different printers' ornaments throughout. It has eleven names only in the list of "Acteurs."

The second authorized edition, the printing of which was finished June 6, 1669, always has the "Tartuffe" title-page. It contains additional preliminary matter.

There was published in 1667, and again in 1668, before the printing of the Comedy was authorized, a "Lettre sur la comedie de l'Imposteur," the authorship of which has been attributed to Molière himself.

Putting these facts together it seems probable that the book was first printed with the "Imposteur" title and without the Preface, and that the new title was printed with the Preface. This at least seems to be certain, the genuine first edition with the "Imposteur" title is much rarer than with the "Tartuffe" title.

Correspondence.

AN INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL OF PEACE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Although man has been obliged to fight his way from the beginning, yet through the development of ages he has risen in a large measure above the necessity of fighting. Formerly the lord had his castle upon a spur of the mountain for defence against the lawless and against his enemies. This custom was extended, and they would signal each to the other when danger threatened. Later it was found to be cheaper and better to settle in a town and to build around it high walls which could not be scaled. But the walled-town stage has long since passed, and we have now reached a stage of development where physical force within each nation is applied only as a police force to restrain the vicious and turbulent.

But as between nations the earlier conditions still prevail, and they continue to act toward each other as barbarians. They are suffering from fear and distrust of each other, almost wholly unwarranted. In fact, each individual nation wishes to be undisturbed in the peaceful development of its own resources. Rarely does one nation desire a conflict with another nation or to encroach upon the territory of another. Each wishes to live in harmony with the others. Yet our boundary lines are bristling with cannon, the seas are alive with battleships, and the tramp of the soldier is heard the world over. And for what purpose? Is it to curb the turbulent and vicious? No. It is because of a groundless fear of attack from sister nations. Such attacks are not really contemplated, and ought not to be expected.

This enormous expense for armies, this taxation that is draining every year billions from the treasuries of the people and bringing want, sickness, suffering, and death to multitudes, is wholly unnecessary; and the problem of international peace is how to set in motion forces which will end this frightful waste and destruction. I believe that this result can best be accomplished by appealing to the enlightened self-interest of mankind and setting in motion educational forces which will show the folly of the present status, and will also remove the fear and suspicion which are the main causes of our present wasteful expenditures for armies and navies.

But no substantial progress can be made if the effort runs directly counter to the present trend of thought and action. The idea of force cannot at once be eradicated. It is useless to believe that the nations can be persuaded to disband their present armies and dismantle their present navies, trusting in each other or in the Hague Tribunal to settle any possible differences between them, unless, first, some substitute for the existing forces is provided and demonstrated by experience to be adequate to protect the rights, dignity, and territory of the respective nations. My own belief is that the idea which underlies the movement for the Hague Court can be developed so that the nations can be persuaded each to contribute a small percentage of their military forces at sea and on land to form an *International Guard* or *Police Force*. Five per cent. of the present armaments would probably be found sufficient. If this is too small, certainly 10 per cent. would be fully adequate to protect all the nations in their rights, and to prevent any disorder or turbulence. This plan involves no marked or revolutionary change in the present methods; puts no additional burdens of taxation upon the people; but if tried, it will make the futility and waste of the present method so obvious that disarmament will naturally and inevitably follow, just as disarmament among individuals follows upon the institution and maintenance of an adequate police force. When the nations see that this international police force is ample to insure them all their rights, they will be unwilling to bear the present excessive burdens for armament; and disarmament, or at least nine-tenths of it, will come as a natural and inevitable result of a perception of the obvious uselessness of armament.

The plan which I would establish is somewhat as follows:

(1.) There should be founded, I think in corporate form, an International School of Peace. Such a corporation would be a permanent legal machinery for receiving and disbursing contributions and bequests; for it is an important part of my purpose and hope that the fund which I have provided for should be but the nucleus and beginning of a great endowment, contributed by others and perhaps by the governments themselves, to forward this great cause.

(2.) This International School of Peace, whether incorporated or not incorporated, should have a president, secretary, treasurer, and board of managers or directors, making up an executive committee, constituted of men who are known for their soundness of judgment as well as for their devotion to the public welfare. An advisory council, consisting of men prominent in the peace movement, might well be constituted.

(3.) There should be a Bureau of Education which should attempt to modify the courses of study in our schools, colleges, and universities, by eliminating the use of such literature and history as tend to inculcate unduly the military spirit and to exaggerate the achievements of war. Too much of our history is now devoted to accounts of battles and to the exploits of war heroes; too little respect and attention are directed to the unselfish and self-sacrificing lives of thousands of noble men and women who have striven and achieved mightily for the benefit of the race in the fields of peace.

International exchange of teachers and students, in accordance with the ideas which underlie the Rhodes scholarships and the recent exchange of professors between Germany and America, should be further extended, even among the teachers of our public schools.

Social intercourse among the educators of different nations should be extended in every possible way. "Stranger" and "enemy" always have been nearly, if not quite, synonymous terms.

The circulation of such books as have already been published under the name of "The International Library" should be advanced in every possible way, and the publication and circulation of other books having an analogous tendency should be encouraged.

The coöperation of the clergy should also be obtained. They should be interested in the peace movement and induced to preach upon its various aspects and to work among their parishioners, so that they may make their pulpits and lives a real power for "peace on earth and good will towards men." Theological seminaries and other institutions for training preachers and clergymen should be brought to see the importance of this movement.

Either separately, or as a part of this Educational Bureau, there should be an organized attempt to influence the press of the world. Facts and arguments tending to show the advantages of peace from an historical and economic standpoint should be gathered and distributed to newspapers and magazines everywhere. An editorial corps, thoroughly trained, should furnish constantly to the press of the world material which would make for peace. One of the present great dangers of war is to be found in false, misleading, and inflammatory statements about international relations, written by irresponsible persons and circulated by sensational newspapers.

Again, why should not the government appropriate money for the proper training of its civil servants, ten thousand in number? We have the amplest schools at West

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Point and Annapolis for the training of our young men for warlike duties. If carefully educated, able men were employed in each of the capitals of the nations, to smooth out the various difficulties that might arise at the very beginning, who can estimate the beneficent effects upon our international relations? Is it not worth while for the governments of the world seriously to consider the establishment of a school for the education of their servants and a bureau, under the control of a Cabinet officer, whose duty it should be to study broadly international relations, looking toward the peaceful development of each nation? The time may come, and I hope speedily, when the minister of peace will be regarded as important to the human race as the minister of war.

Our business organizations—chambers of commerce and other similar associations—should be addressed and interested in this question of the burdens of war and of the threat and fear of war. These various organizations listen with intense interest to discussions on the effect of the tariff upon business, and spend a great amount of time and thought upon all such matters, yet entirely overlook the fact that almost, if not quite, the greatest single burden that business is now bearing is the war burden.

(4.) A political bureau should be instituted, which should employ men of statesmanlike grasp and power in all the main capitals of the world, to watch over the course of legislation and to work for the reduction of armaments. Such men should scrutinize all matters of international concern and strive in every way to prevent trifling causes from exciting international disputes and the war spirit. Many wars should and would be prevented if able, discreet, and statesmanlike men were in the capitals of the world, watching and working for good understanding and peace.

To such a school I am myself planning to give $50,000 a year, and to endow it after my death; and it is my hope that other men will be ready to increase the fund to an efficient amount. But however carefully we may plan for this great work, its success must depend finally upon the *kind* of men and women employed. It is my belief that this organization should first aim to secure the most talented persons in their line, men and women who desire to devote their lives to the cause, making sure that we have a fund sufficiently large to guarantee them a salary adequate to enable them to do their work effectively and at the same time provide themselves with the ordinary comforts of life. Above all, every one who enters the ranks should do so because of an all-absorbing interest in the cause. I would rather have one, thus equipped, than a hundred of equal ability who were influenced largely by the salary to be obtained. The success of this organization will depend upon the amount of enthusiasm we put into the work, and it must be the enthusiasm of a reformer—a Godfrey, a Savonarola, a Garrison, a Phillips—the kind of white heat that burns when it touches a community. With such a spirit great things can be accomplished.

EDWIN GINN.

Boston, Mass., September 7.

"DANT IN ENGLISH": A SOLUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR. The writer of the review of Paget Toynbee's "Dante in English Literature" (the *Nation*, August 19) censures the author because considering Chaucer's debt to Dante he makes nothing of Lydgate's curious "Dante in English," which, according to Professor Skeat, Mr. Toynbee, and many others, Lydgate gives as a work of Chaucer's. May I offer a solution of this literary crux?

The problem is briefly as follows: in the prologue to his "Fall of Princes" (not "Falls," as Mr. Toynbee miscalls it) Lydgate eulogizes the writer's profession, and in particular, Petrarch, Boccaccio, and Chaucer. Of the last he gives a somewhat random list of works. After mentioning the "Troilus" and other poems, he says:

> He wrote also full many a day agoon
> *Dant in English himself doth so expresse*
> The piteous story of Ceix and Alcion
> And the dethe also of Blaunche the Duchesse
> And notably he did his businesse
> By great avis his wittes to dispose
> To translate the Romaunt of the Rose.

(I omit punctuation for reasons which will appear. Concerning the phrase "Dant in English," I will only say that this reading is universal among the twenty MSS. of the "Fall," which I consulted last year at the British Museum and at Oxford.)

Professor Skeat's argument rests on three points. He takes it for granted that the works named in the stanza are "Dant in English," "Ceix and Alcion," "The Dethe of the Duchesse," etc.

(1.) In the Prologue to the "Legend of Good Women," Chaucer says he wrote (it is by the mouth of the God of Love, to be sure) the "Hous of Fame," "The Dethe of the Duchesse," and the "Parlement of Foules." Lydgate recollects this list of Chaucer's obviously, and uses it for other details (too long to insert here), and it is therefore only natural to expect mention of the "Hous of Fame," where "Dant in English" occurs. Mention of the "Parlement of Foules" occurs in the next stanza of Lydgate.

(2.) The "Hous of Fame" is so obviously the only poem greatly influenced by Dante, that it must be the one mentioned.

(3.) The "Hous of Fame" is not elsewhere mentioned in Lydgate's list. It is too important to have been entirely passed over.

Professor Skeat interprets the italicized line as follows: "(I give it that name for) he, i. e., Chaucer, expresses himself like Dante (therein)."

I answer these arguments *seriatim:*

(1.) Professor Skeat totally neglects the fact that "Ceix and Alcion" intervenes between the phrase "Dant in English" and the "Dethe of the Duchesse." "Ceix and Alcion" is not mentioned at all in the list in Chaucer's "Legend," and it is, therefore, obvious that Lydgate used that list pretty freely and from memory, or he would have copied it more exactly. Two other items in the "Legend" list Lydgate omitted entire.

Moreover, the professor also neglects the fact that "many a day agoon," in the first line, is certainly a recollection of the line from the "Man of Law,"

> In youthe he made of Ceys and Alcion.

It is "many a day agoon," because it was in Chaucer's youth. But the "Hous of Fame" was not written in Chaucer's youth.

(2.) Professor Skeat, as his interpretation above shows, implies that Lydgate was so good a Dante scholar as to recognize at once the likeness to Dante's work in the "Hous of Fame." Now, Mr. Paget Toynbee, the best of Dante scholars, can find very little likeness to Dante in Chaucer's poem, so little, in fact, that, while he offers no other solution, he does not believe the "Hous of Fame" is meant by "Dant in English." Would Lydgate, who was not a thesis hunter, have seen the resemblance?

But Lydgate knew Dante, as he himself says, only "by a report, verray celestiall." There is no evidence that he could read a line of Italian. All he knew was the general knowledge that Dante's book treated of heaven, purgatory, and hell, plus what he could glean about Dante in his one *thesaurus,* Chaucer's works. At least, his mentions of Dante, printed by Mr. Paget Toynbee, give us no right to claim more for him; and no scholar has ever dug out a single translated line of Italian from his works.

Now, the only hints Chaucer throws out as to the nature of Dante's compositions are two. In the "Hous of Fame" he says, *if you want to read about torments in hell,* go to Virgil, Claudian,

> Or Daunte that hit telle can.

At the end of the piteous tale of Ugolino of Pisa, in the "Monkes Tale," he says:

> Who so wol here it in a lenger wyse
> Redeth the grete poete of Itaille
> That highte Dante, for he can al devyse
> Fro point to point, not o word wol he faille.

All that Lydgate could learn of Chaucer about Dante, then, was that the Italian poet told piteous tales of folks in pain and anguish. If Chaucer was like Dante, then it must have been in telling piteous tales. Now the "Hous of Fame" is not piteous; it is a light-hearted *jeu d'esprit.* The piteous stories are, obviously, "Ceix and Alcion" and "The Dethe of the Duchesse." The second line of the stanza is simply a parenthesis. The sense of the stanza is: "Chaucer wrote a long while ago, like an English Dante as he was, the piteous story of 'Ceix and Alcion,' and 'The Dethe of the Duchesse'; and he also occupied himself with the translation of 'Le Roman de la Rose.'"

Such an interpretation accords, and it is the only one which accords, with Lydgate's well-known habit of inserting parenthetical lines to fill out the necessary rhymes in his stanza. In this very *ballade* before us, the next to the last line is such a one. It could be stricken out without loss. The second line is of the same class, though it conveys a parenthesis of more thought-value.

(3.) If the "Hous of Fame" is not elsewhere mentioned in this list of Lydgate, neither is "St. Cecile" or "The Wretched Engendring of Mankind," both (the latter in the A-version only) mentioned in the "Legend" list which Skeat supposes Lydgate to be using. The plain truth is, that Lydgate did not have a reference library at his disposal—it is doubtful whether the "Legend of Good Women" could have been permitted to enter the "smal librarie" of Bury St. Edmunds—and he forgot, as other good people do, some items of his youthful reading, among them the "Hous of Fame." Instances of Lydgate's careless habits in quoting from Chaucer and others could be multiplied *ad nauseam.* Like Wal-

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ter Scott, when he could not remember, he made up his quotations. He would have been the last, however, to mystify his readers with an unfamiliar title for a famous poem.

If Mr. Paget Toynbee had printed the whole stanza, instead of the first two lines only, this explanation must, I think, have occurred to him.

HENRY NOBLE MACCRACKEN.

New Haven, Conn., September 14.

A QUOTATION FOR THOSE WHO DASH TO THE POLES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A picturesque incident in Cook's account of his visit to the North Pole is given where he describes his "cultured" Eskimos as dancing with delight beneath the "Big Nail." It should seem as if the imagination of that people had conceived an elongation of the earth's axis as still projecting from the skies like a sort of "boreal" icicle, or mammoth ethereal stalactite, pointing toward that same pole to which Peary has nailed the Stars and Stripes. Now, it but remains for some hardy "aviator" to affix the same symbol of perseverance to the remaining and pendent remnant of this somewhat attrited axle-tree.

In our admiration for the "grit" of these Arctic and Antarctic explorers, let it not be lost from sight that their exploits are of value chiefly as tests of human endurance; nor let us lose from consideration one hateful trait of this sort of human activity. Polar exploration in the north is accomplished only by the use of picked specimens of dogs, the best attainable in strength and courage, who strain every nerve to aid their masters in dragging their loads over the interminable ice-floes, and for this their only reward is to be knocked on the head and devoured by the remaining members of the party. Every report shows them intelligent and faithful, eager to do their master's bidding, his "poor earth-born companions and fellow mortals." In maintaining decencies in our relations with the domestic animals, the world does not seem to have progressed far from the time when the Jews felt it unbecoming to seethe a kid in his mother's milk, or muzzle the ox when he treadeth out the corn.

In Antarctic exploration Lieut. Shackleton made use of Mongolian ponies, which came to the same end as the dogs on similar journeys; and the loss of one of these down a crevasse in the ice prevented that explorer from proceeding nearer than a hundred miles from the South Pole.

In Prior's "Alma" is an appropriate quotation for an expedition thus equipped:

> I say, whatever you maintain
> Of Alma [mind] in the heart or brain;
> The plainest man alive may tell ye,
> Her seat of empire is the belly;
> From hence she sends out those supplies,
> Which make us either stout or wise;
> The strength of every other member
> Is founded on your belly-timber.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> Was ever Tartar fierce or cruel
> Upon the strength of water-gruel?
> But who shall stand his rage and force,
> If first he rides, then eats, his horse?

ALDEN SAMPSON.

New York, September 14.

Literature.

EARLY SATIRE.

Verse Satire in England before the Renaissance. By Samuel Marion Tucker, Ph.D. New York: The Columbia University Press. $1 net.

This title is to be construed literally. The work deals with verse, not with prose, and it stops just on the threshold of our modern period. Still more significant, it deals with satire in England, not with satire in English. Thus the reader is reminded, more systematically and persistently than in ordinary histories, of the fact that England was for upwards of three centuries, from the Conquest to the death of Gower, tri-lingual. We get satire in Latin, in French, in English. On the other hand, with theoretical inconsistency, but with practical good sense, the author has included verse satire written in the English of Scotland.

The present work is largely of the nature of pioneering. For, though the bibliography at the end bulks somewhat large, not one of the books cited, not even Alden's "Rise of Formal Satire," could have yielded any very direct guidance. It would be grossly unjust, therefore, to give undue prominence to occasional faults of commission or omission. If we call attention to a few, it is with the intent rather of helping the reader than of troubling the writer.

To the list of mock-epics considered in the general introductory chapter, pp. 20 seq., we should add the Bentley-Wotton episode in Swift's "Battle of the Books." Though printed by Swift as prose, its blank-verse grandiloquence is a delightful parody of the heroic style. To the satire on literary themes, p. 33, we should add Byron's "Vision of Judgment," or rather substitute it for his tyronic and incoherent "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers." And to the "Parnassian" poems we should certainly add, for dramatic satire, "The Knight of the Burning Pestle," the three Cambridge "Parnassus" plays, and "The Rehearsal." At p. 202, we read that "Testaments [*i. e.*, Wills] galore had appeared through the preceding two centuries," but that Lyndsay seems to be the first to use the form as a vehicle for satire. In the first place, "galore" is not a fit term in sober writing. Further, we would remind both author and reader of Piers Plowman's "Testament," in Passus vi. When, p. 214, Bale's "The Three Laws" is described as "not an easily accessible play," we are puzzled. Surely the *Anglia* ought not to be out of reach of any one, who undertakes to handle the history of English literature; besides, Schröer's *Anglia* edition can be had in separate form. Again, p. 192, the phrasing used in the text to describe the "Image of Hypocrisy" is unfortunate: "This ballad exists only in manuscript." Yet the footnote enables the trained reader to discover that the ballad was published (by Furnivall) in volume one of the Ballad Society. Even worse is the sentence, p. 53:

> It [the literature of Visions of Hell and Heaven] begins in English literature with the frequent references in the Anglo-Saxon prose of Aelfric and of Wulfstan; takes more formal shape in Bede's "Vision of Furseus" and "Vision of Drihthelm" in the "Ecclesiastical History"; and appears in the "Cynewulfian Poems."

Such an utterance leads one to suspect that the author's ideas of Old English are of the haziest. To begin with the end, the "Cynewulfian" poems do not present the literature of Visions. True, they touch upon the pains of the damned and the joys of heaven; that, however, is very far from constituting a Vision. In the next place, the references in Aelfric and Wulfstan do not begin this form of literature in England. Aelfric and Wulfstan are only feeble reflexes of Bede.

In general, pp. 53-55 give much occasion for shaking of the head. One perceives that the author has not gone to the bottom of his subject. Without entering into any argument, we would submit to him the absolute necessity of setting up several distinct categories for mediæval literature. There is the literature of Visions of Hell and Heaven, purely Christian in substance, but influenced by well-known passages in the "Odyssey" and the "Æneid." Then there are the Allegorical Pilgrimages, of which the best known representative is Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress"; also purely Christian. Further, there are the Wanderings and Voyages, mythological and non-Christian; for example, Brandan and Maeldune. Finally, there are the stories of an Earthly Paradise, or Land of Cockaigne. To suggest, p. 55, that the French and English *fabliaux* of this last genre may be parodies of the Visions of Hell, is to misapprehend the data of mediæval literature.

Our chief quarrel with the author concerns his attitude towards satire in general; in particular, towards Chaucer and Langland. What is satire: can it be strictly defined? In some places our author seems to admit the possibility of strict definition; in others, to evade the attempt. Again, is it possible to draw any sharp and fast line between satire and humor? Or to admit, with the author, p. 5, that satirical poetry is *destructive* in its criticism, while all other forms of poetry are *constructive*? "This peculiar and individual tone sets satirical poetry apart." Or to admit, pp. 13-14, that prose-satire offers "a wider field to the imagination through its freedom from metrical restrictions"? On these and many similar points we can not enter into a detailed discussion, but must rather content ourselves with lay-

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ing down a single general principle. What we call wit, humor, satire, is merely a varying manifestation of the realistic spirit which dwells upon the incongruities of human life. These incongruities are always present. There is always the contrast between the real man and the man as he appears to himself; always the contrast between what the man seeks to accomplish and what he does accomplish. According as we present the incongruity in a spirit of friendliness, of compassion, of superiority, of opposition, we are humorous or witty or ironical or satirical. At bottom our realistic spirit is essentially the same. It is seldom a truly destructive spirit, any more than the spirit of lyric or ballad poetry is always truly constructive. Nor is it essentially a reformatory spirit. We doubt whether even Swift, in his "Tale of a Tub," or in "Gulliver," was really bent upon reforming people and things. At any rate, we devoutly hope that no one will accept the high-school doctrine that metre is a restriction upon the imagination. It was a great poet who taught "Das Gesetz nur kann uns Freiheit geben." And it was the same Goethe who confessed that certain utterances are possible only in poetry, because it is poetry; prose were too brutal.

Urging our broader interpretation of the realistic spirit, we must contend that our author's estimate of Chaucer and Langland is painfully inadequate. We refuse to accept a treatment of Chaucer's satire which restricts itself practically to the "Canterbury Tales" and ignores "Troilus and Cressida." Granted that the portrait of the Wife of Bath is magnificent, the standing delight of all true Chaucerians, must we also admit that "No other such portrait exists in English satire; and other mere 'satires against women' compared with this immortal picture become colorless and feeble"? The Wife of Bath is clear-cut because obvious; Cressida, indubitably the satirical portrait of the woman who, whispering I'll ne'er consent, consented, and then cheerily slipped out of a troublesome entanglement, is developed on subtler lines, with a wealth of psychological analysis which is equaled only by Shakespeare, and surpassed not even by him. Then there is Pandarus, most immoral of immortals, as fertile in expedients as the wily Ulysses. There is also the delicate perfume of court life suggested in Helen and Deiphobus. In brief, Chaucer's "Troilus and Cressida" is not only his most finished and most genial work, but the shrewdest satire ever penned in English.

Of "Piers Plowman" we need only say that Langland's satire is scarcely inferior to Chaucer's. The language, true, is cruder, the metre compares unfavorably with Chaucer's limpid verse-flow. But the portraiture of the incongruities of political, judicial, ecclesiastical life, of all classes from king to beggar, is genial in conception and handling. The one poet satirizes in the spirit of the courtier, the other in the spirit of a man in close touch with humanity at large.

Again, "The Owl and the Nightingale," the most remarkable product of the thirteenth century, receives scant courtesy at p. 57. Had our author utilized Wells's edition, instead of merely citing it in a footnote, he would not have followed the "great authority" of Professor Courthope by characterizing the poem as a scolding-match between the strictly monastic party and the latitudinarian. Owl and nightingale are much more than advocates of contending parties in the Church; they are symbols of the eternal contention between the life which scorns delight and leads laborious days, and the other life which sports with Amaryllis in the shade. Milton does not leave his readers in doubt concerning his attitude towards this burning question. But the author of "The Owl and the Nightingale," with delicate self-irony, makes us feel that somehow he cannot help sympathizing with both sides.

The faults of this history of Satire in England are thus not inconsiderable. Yet, in the main, the work has decided merit. It is scholarly and is accurate in details. The general student and reader will find it helpful. Its wealth of illustrative quotations makes the perusal stimulating.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Half Moon. By Ford Madox Hueffer. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

The introductory dedication to this story is better than the story itself: a very accomplished little essay, rather in the Stevensonian manner, on the historical setting of Hudson's exploit. It is inscribed to Mr. W. A. Bradley, who, says Mr. Hueffer, suggested to him that he should write a story about the voyage of the Half Moon. The resulting narrative is a creditable exercise in its kind—better than might have been expected of a novel written, in a sense, to order. It has not the mark of spontaneity, but is the product of a carefully considered and tolerably successful artifice. Mr. Hueffer has evidently little nautical knowledge or enthusiasm, or he would not say to begin with, "a voyage is not a very inspiring thing to write about," and he would not make such vague fantastic work of the actual experiences of the Half Moon at sea. But the study of mankind, he observes, is man. His object is to throw light upon the kind of people who made the voyage in question, and the kind of conditions in the old country which made that voyage possible. What he offers in his dedication upon these heads is, we say, so good as to tempt the wish that he might have gone on, expanded, written a history instead of a romance. For the human persons of the tale are, it must be confessed, mere shadows. Hudson is a rather grotesque figure, neither admirable nor imposing. The centre of the stage belongs, not to him, but to one Edward Colman of Rye Royal, in whom the story-teller is interested partly because he comes from Rye, and partly because he was the first European to lose his life upon the waters of the Hudson. Colman, though a merchant, is a Baron of the Cinque Ports. His chief profits come from "owling" or smuggling wool, which is against the King's laws, but not against the traditions of the bumptious little town of Rye. However, he is betrayed and his life set in danger through the hatred of a woman scorned. He flees to Holland, and presently becomes one of Hudson's companions in the Half Moon. The woman's hatred pursues him; she is a witch, and finally destroys him by her spells, while the width of the Atlantic separates them. The motive has appositeness as bearing testimony to the superstitions of Hudson's day, but it is overdeveloped. There is too much in the narrative as a whole of the convention of "historical romance," from the importance of its feminine machinations to the affectations of its archaic dialogue.

Poppea of the Post-Office. By Mabel Osgood Wright. New York: The Macmillan Co.

"Barbara," author of "The Garden of a Commuter's Wife," is possessor of a pretty vein of sentiment, and has here written a story of American village life, which is decidedly more engaging than is common with stories of the type. It has no special novelty of theme or structure. Poppea is a foundling whose foster-father is the postmaster of the village of "Harley's Mills." She grows to womanhood in ignorance of her true parentage, the eventual revelation of which casts an apparent obstacle in the way of her happy marriage. It is all made to come right in the end by means which are likely to be quite as satisfying to the reader as if they were novel.

But the idyllic quality of the narrative renders the matter of plot of little account. The really central figure is not Poppea, but the old postmaster, Oliver Gilbert. He is an ardent patriot, but a crooked leg has prevented his enlistment at the beginning of the civil war. Lincoln is his idol, and he has letters written by the great man in response to ingenuous missives of his own. The little Poppea is left on the doorstep of the post office on the night when the great news of the Monitor's success against the Merrimac had been receiv-

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ed. Gilbert accepts the responsibility for the child as a fulfilment of Lincoln's prophecy—that if he were unable to go to the front, God would find some other wrong for him to right, by his own door. He brings her up faithfully as his daughter, teaching her to think of the two whom he has loved and lost as her own mother and sister. Her discovery of the truth alienates her from him for a time, but she presently comes to see that there has been nothing selfish in his motive. The worse possibility of her parentage is disproved, and she eventually (after, as it seems, some unnecessary misunderstandings) marries the nice boy of her choice. The villain of the piece is, according to current fashion, the rich man of the community. He bears the unmitigated malice of the stage Crœsus, and, like that worthy, dies repentant.

Sir Guy and Lady Rannard. By H. N. Dickinson. New York: Duffield & Co.

A wealthy young baronet with political ambitions is the not unparalleled hero of this narrative. For her promise of serviceableness, social and political, he marries the daughter of a West Kensington vicar. She is a handsome and capable girl, and, for her part, marries him for his wealth and position. It very soon appears that he does not care for intelligent aid from her, and they are estranged. He wins a seat in Parliament by an elaborate system of bribery, which, as he is devoid of moral sense, he considers a mere application of business methods to politics. It is unfortunate, however, even from his point of view, that the secret of his success should leak out. The cold shoulder is given him by the leaders of his party. His passion of self-aggrandizement becomes a mania, and his mind is gradually unhinged. Meanwhile, the wife, recognizing his moral and mental instability, has come to feel for him a passionate devotion; and it remains for her to guard the wreck of him from the harsh scrutiny of the world. He is presently released by the knife thrust of a mad socialist.

These are familiar enough materials; but the present treatment of them is not without originality. The vitiating consideration lies in the mental rather than in the moral irresponsibility of Sir Guy. He is too obviously unbalanced at the outset greatly to arouse one's interest, unless as a pathological study. But it is, after all, the figure of Lady Rannard upon which the attention is focussed; here is a figure of pathetic—almost of tragic—moment. Nowhere more movingly in recent fiction has been depicted that magical transformation of the mature and self-centred virgin into the devoted wife. What seems at first to have been a travesty of marriage eventually discovers itself as a true and unbreakable union—a miracle as stupendous, if not quite as common, as the miracle of birth or of dawn.

Joan of the Hills. By T. B. Clegg. New York: John Lane Co.

It is a thankworthy thing that there still live—mainly in England—writers of a now rare type of novel from which are absent machinery, the stock market, politics, king-making. Here is a story of Australian life led up to by admirably rendered London scenes. Here are the good old motives—a chivalrous and miserable marriage, a crisis, and a new start for father and son in Australia. Here is a love story with its rough course; here are scenes in a country store and on a cattle-station; journeys in bullock carts and on horseback; a fire in the bush; a cave of safety. Here are figures, too, that belong to the good old realm of story: a hero, conscientious but a postponer of painful duty, a fine, open-air heroine, and the heroine's father, a skinflint Scot, whose hidden vein of goodness is unexpected enough to provide many of the surprises of the tale. The secondary characters are uncommonly well drawn, from the hero's Lincoln's Inn brethren to the little Irish sergeant in Australia, and even to the "soft-goods" clerk. Though it deals with topics pleasantly far from modern clatter, this novel lacks, in its swing and briskness, nothing either of originality or modernity.

A GREAT PHILANTHROPIST.

Letters and Journals of Samuel Gridley Howe. Edited by His Daughter, Laura E. Richards, with Notes by F. B. Sanborn. Vol. II. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. $3 net.

The second volume of Samuel Howe's Memoirs is of more general interest than the first; it carries on the history of his life from 1832 to its close in 1876. During that period he resided in Boston and its vicinity, took a prominent part in the stirring intellectual and political movements of the time, and carried through a great work of practical philanthropy. A physician, a man of acute perception, of strong sense, and of altruistic and humanitarian instincts, he set to work to smooth a way for the helpless and crippled. He was one of the pioneers and most effective workers in teaching the blind, the deaf, the dumb, and the idiots—and all this without false sentiment, without fuss. His personal appeal was irresistible not only to those whom he was leading to light, but to those whose support he demanded in the cause of charity and justice. This was due in part to personal magnetism, in part to the confidence inspired by the practical and effective administration of the institutions he managed. No man was ever more ready with compassion and help, and yet so free from illusions—witness his refusal to join the Peace Society, notwithstanding the pressing solicitations of one of his most valued friends, Charles Sumner. He did not hesitate to tell another of his friends, Theodore Parker, whom he viewed at one time as the greatest American of his age, that a sermon he had listened to contained nothing but rhetoric and claptrap, a judgment that was doubtless as accurate as it was vigorous.

Dr. Howe was prominent in the ranks of the Abolitionists, and was a friend of John Brown. After Brown's capture at Harper's Ferry, Howe, in fear of arrest, went to Canada for a while. Thence he wrote to Sumner in November, 1859:

> It seemed to Andrew and other friends that the best chance for heroic old John Brown was the appearance of his having acted on his own motion and responsibility, and without the active coöperation of organized committees or prominent individuals in the North; hence that those whose names had been introduced and who were really able to do so should deny all knowledge of the Harper's Ferry plot. Being in that category, I published a card which you may have seen in the papers.

The fact was that Dr. Howe had just previously given Brown, by check, fifty dollars. "The evidence of the fact and my name fell into the hands of the enemy. This fact and another, that I had once sent him a rifle and pistols . . . made Gov. Wise and others believe that I was one of the chief instigators of Brown's raid." An attempt was made to have him arrested, and he found that, as he says, in Suffolk County he could not be protected from the marshal; the judges would not respect the habeas corpus. Out of Suffolk, he would have been protected by the people; but out of Suffolk he could do no good, and so he went to Canada, where he stayed till after "the dreadful 2d of December."

The letters of Dr. Howe given in this volume are occasionally of wide interest, and are occasionally graced with some lightness of style; but on the whole, the matter might well have been cut down to much smaller proportions. As a favorable specimen of his style, the following may be quoted from a letter to Charles Sumner, written during an English tour.

> Let me talk about home; dear old Boston; dear old friends; dear American institutions. For after all, Sumner, with its blaze of talent, its gorgeous wealth, its exquisite refinement, London could never hold in my heart or my mind so high a place as does Boston; because, measured by God's scale, it is not so high. I have not been so dazzled by the head and the front of the monster as to forget the fact that it has a tail which draggles along through the foulest slough in which humanity ever wallowed. . . . London and English institu-

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tions elevate and refine the few at the expense of the many, far more than does an American city.

Passing a few minor criticisms that might be addressed to the editor of the volume, one may warmly recommend it to the reader. Even if one cannot accept Mr. Sanborn's dictum that Dr. Howe is to be ranked with men of genius like Emerson and Carlyle, he was a notable man and really great in his goodness. To read his record will make the reader himself feel a better man.

Dante's "Convivio" translated into English. By W. W. Jackson, D.D. New York: Henry Frowde.

This new translation of the "Convivio" is a welcome addition to the already remarkable English and American output of Dantesque literature. Dr. Jackson's volume, though modest in appearance, is a work of the first importance from the point of view of the serious student of Dante. An adequate and scholarly English translation of this comparatively little known work has long been a desideratum. A couple of English renderings of the treatise were already in existence when Dr. Jackson began his task, and a third was published shortly before the present version was completed. Two of these, namely, that of Miss Hillard, and that of Mr. Wicksteed, as well as the careful German version of Kannegiesser (published more than sixty years ago), are appreciatively mentioned by Dr. Jackson in his preface, as having been of occasional service to him in the revision of his own translation. Each of the two former has certain decided merits of its own, but unfortunately in both cases the merits are more than counterbalanced by serious defects, either of scholarship or of style, which have prevented the adoption of either as the standard English version of the "Convivio."

Even a cursory examination of Dr. Jackson's translation will suffice to satisfy the most exacting of critics that it is the work at once of an accomplished translator who is a master of his own tongue, and of a scholar who has made himself familiar with the several branches of knowledge with which Dante deals in this treatise. Ignorance of scholastic terminology was responsible for not a few of the blunders of preceding translators, which Dr. Jackson, with a more scientific equipment and a sounder judgment, has known how to avoid. As a single example of his more scholarly instinct in this respect we may cite his rendering of the phrase "uomo è legno animato" in the canzone prefixed to the fourth book of the treatise. *Legno* here has commonly been taken in the literal sense of "tree" or "trunk"; but Dr. Jackson is, we think, undoubtedly right in seeing in the word as here used by Dante the Italian equivalent of "hyle" (ὕλη), the mediæval "ile" in the sense of "matter."

The text followed by the translator is that of Dr. Moore, as printed in the third edition of the Oxford Dante (1904), which is the only text based on a systematic examination of all the known manuscripts. Dr. Jackson, however, displays no little critical acumen on his own account, with the result that in quite an appreciable number of passages he has been able to introduce emendations of his own, which are undoubted improvements, and at the same time are justifiable on palæographical grounds; indeed, that they are thoroughly sound may be inferred from the fact that the majority of them have received the *imprimatur* of Dr. Moore, who, as is well known, is preëminently cautious and conservative in matters of textual criticism. These emendations, which in several cases are merely changes of punctuation, but are none the less important on that account, are for the most part fully discussed in the notes at the end of the volume. In one instance we are inclined to think that Dr. Jackson in his editorial capacity has been over-venturesome, namely, in adopting from Fraticelli an emendation of Witte's in the seventh chapter of the first book, which involves a violent departure from the reading of the manuscripts, though it may, as the translator urges, "give exactly the sense required." If once the door be opened to emendations of this hazardous description, the tendency is inevitably to relax more and more from that scrupulous respect for manuscript authority, which should be the guiding principle of all textual criticism. Few works have suffered more than Dante's "Convivio" from a disregard of this principle. The greatest sinner in this respect was Giuliani, whose arbitrary alterations of the text of this and other works of Dante, to suit what he considered (very often quite mistakenly) to be "the required sense," created for a long time a strong prejudice against Italian editions of Dante's works, which has only been removed of recent years by the scholarly labors of Rajna, Barbi, Parodi, and other well-known Italian editors and critics.

In an interesting and able introductory essay, Dr. Jackson dwells on the importance to the Dante student of a knowledge of the "Convivio," which, as he observes, fills the "central space" in the poet's history, and is the link between the "Vita Nuova" and the "Divina Commedia." The same essay contains a succinct exposition of the scholastic philosophy of the age, some acquaintance with which is essential to an intelligent appreciation of Dante's methods of composition, and to an understanding of his (from our point of view) uncritical cast of mind. A full and clear "summary of contents" is prefixed to each book of the treatise, and appended is an "index of subject-matter." The latter, which is, we believe, the first serious attempt of the kind, is an excellent specimen of what might, and, indeed, should, be done for the whole of Dante's works. A complete subject-index, as a complement to the index of proper names and notable matters appended to the Oxford Dante, would be an invaluable adjunct to the existing Dantesque books of reference, two of which (the admirable concordances to the "Divina Commedia" and to the "Canzoniere" and Italian prose works), it is a pleasure to recall, are the work of American scholars.

The present volume, as is the rule with works issued from the Clarendon Press, is carefully printed. The only oversight we have noted is the omission of the page references to three of the notes on the third book.

Pierre Le Tourneur. By Mary Gertrude Cushing. New York: The Columbia University Press.

Judged by current standards, the study of Le Tourneur, signed by Dr. Cushing, is a creditable specimen of those "valuable contributions, . . . deserving to be accepted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree," etc., etc. Le Tourneur was one of the minor men of letters who saw, after the issue of the "Lettres Philosophiques," and the beginnings of Anglomania in France, the trend of readers and of publishers. Dutifully he went outside of France for his material. He who had published a *discours* or two, and some *éloges*, he who had gained a fragile reputation as a writer of *contes*, now turned toward Italian verse, and toward the literatures of Germany and of England. His part in acclimatizing Italian and German literature was so slight that we may fairly disregard it here. And his connection with English letters may be summed up under three heads: his work as a translator of (1) novels and miscellaneous works; (2) Young, Hervey, and Ossian; (3) Shakespeare. Our discussion is narrowed by Dr. Cushing's admission that "Le Tourneur's greatest achievement in the translation of novels was his version of 'Clarissa Harlowe,' which appeared in 1775." The classic translation of "Clarissa" was, of course, that by the Abbé Prévost, which preceded Le Tourneur's by upwards of thirty years. Le Tourneur's less abridged and less "adapted" version of the familiar story proved a drug on the market. It did not reach its second edition until 1802; though these were the days when, as Collé said, "As for novels, no one will touch them if they be not translations from the English." Judging it on its

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merits, one is not surprised. Not even as a translator of the Graveyard Poets was he an innovator. Portions of Edward Young's masterpiece had appeared in the magazines and in the little Amsterdam volume of "Pensées Angloises" (1769). It was Le Tourneur's privilege to show French readers just how funereal—how tiresome, too—the "Night Thoughts" *in extenso* are. Le Tourneur did not take that opportunity. His likening Young to Pascal declares his critical astuteness; but he thought twice before giving a literal translation of Young. He took with his material the twin liberties of omission and rearrangement.

The "Night Thoughts" were followed by the translation of Young's "Œuvres diverses," Hervey, and Ossian. Le Tourneur's Ossian was as great a success as his Young. Portions of other British poets were put into French prose by this tireless penman. Thus Gray received his attentions; the first stanza of the rendering of the "Elegy" ran:

> J'entends le son de la cloche funèbre qui annonce la fin du jour; les troupeaux mugissans marchent à pas lents, et tortueux vers l'étable; le laboureur fatigué regagne avec effort sa chaumière, il abandonne l'univers à l'effroi des ténèbres et à l'horreur de mes réflexions.

Comment is unnecessary.

These distinctions cannot be denied Le Tourneur: that he first gave a translation, not simply of separate plays of Shakespeare, but of the "Œuvres"; that he first sought sharply to distinguish the words *romantique*, *romanesque*, and *pittoresque*, at a time when the difference was felt, but usage had not yet very firmly established itself. As for the Shakespeare, even Dr. Cushing lays much more stress upon the fact that here was the first complete rendering in French than upon any merit in the performance itself. Voltaire emptied the vials of his wrath upon both Shakespeare's and Le Tourneur's heads; this circumstance is certainly the translator's chief distinction. Such purely historical significance as Le Tourneur has as the first "complete" translator of Shakespeare is minimized by the mediocrity of his performance.

Within the limits of her subject, Dr Cushing seems painstakingly to have covered her ground. A very large part of Le Tourneur's importance must be associated with his adaptations of the Graveyard School; although, as Professor Baldensperger has written in an essay to which Dr. Cushing makes no reference, "Les 'Nuits' d'Young n'ont point suscité directement de chefs-d'œuvre chez nous." Dr. Cushing does not fail to point out that Le Tourneur's Young exercised a considerable influence upon French literature:

> It was the favorite reading of Robespierre; Camille Desmoulins read it the evening before his death, thereby bringing upon himself Westermann's pleasantry, "Tu veux donc mourir deux fois?" Mme. de Staël knew and appreciated Young, and there are echoes of his philosophic melancholy in "Corinne" and her tragedy, "Jane Gray," and, later, Chateaubriand showed the same influence in "René" and "Atala."

Lamartine's poetry is cited; why not the early work of Hugo, as well? Such matters as these are not unrelated to Le Tourneur's significance, such as it is. It is only as historical importance is attributable to them that his translations are worthy of any examination at all. Now that a respectful hearing has been won for him, the translator is likely to sink back again into the well-earned oblivion whence he has been rescued. In the words in which he translated a verse of the Rev. Edward Young: "Quel silence absolu! quelle obscurité profonde!"

George Meredith in Anecdote and Criticism. By J. A. Hammerton. New York: Mitchell Kennerley. $4 net.

It would be easy to disregard this book as a collection of unsifted rubbish. To heap together a vast mass of extracts from newspaper columns and critical reviews, with thin layers of comment to unite them, may be a labor of pious assiduity, but is not likely to produce a work of finished excellence. Mr. Hammerton tries to give his product some semblance of order by sorting out his material under various chapter heads, but the material itself is so often of a mixed character, anecdote and criticism naturally flowing together in the original articles, that the order is not far removed from original chaos. Yet withal we regard the book as distinctly valuable and even to a certain degree, despite the necessary repetition of ideas, interesting. It is, or will be, valuable as a storehouse for the future biographer or critic of Meredith, who will here find much of the toil of investigation done for him. It is interesting for the critical question suggested by its very heterogeneity.

As we read the quotations from one admirer after another—detractors indeed scarcely figure—we are confronted by this curious paradox: almost without exception they deny to Meredith the qualities formerly expected in a great writer and then place him on a pedestal in spite of, sometimes because of, his defects. Thus, in his sledge-hammer style, W. E. Henley, his stanchest admirer, characterizes him as

> one of the worst and least attractive of great writers, as well as one of the best and most fascinating. He is a sun that has broken out into innumerable spots. The better half of his genius is always suffering eclipse from the worst half. He writes with the pen of a great artist in his left hand and the razor of a spiritual suicide in his right. He is the master and the victim of a monstrous cleverness. . . . He is tediously amusing; he is brilliant to the point of being obscure.

After such a douche of oxymorons we shall be ready to accept the paradoxical manner of Oscar Wilde, in his famous dialogue on "The Decay of Lying," as an attempt at sincerity:

> Ah! Meredith! Who can define him? His style is chaos illuminated by flashes of lightning. As a writer he has mastered everything except language; as a novelist he can do everything, except tell a story; as an artist he is everything, except articulate.

Yet to Wilde this inarticulate artist is "the most supreme writer of fiction, it may be, that we have ever had." Perhaps the nearest approach to a solution of this riddling paradox is given by Mrs. Alice Meynell:

> There are no disheartening shortcomings or boundaries in these large and vigorous poems [she might add "and novels"]. If every poet must have one of two demerits—faults or limitations—Mr. Meredith is to be congratulated on having faults, and not limitations. To our mind the possession of faults is preferable to that of limitations. At times he frees his reader's thought, sets him above the poverties of time and place, and asks him, as Virgil asked Dante in an eternal world, *"Che pensi?"* "What thinkest thou?"

To such a distinction one might reply that a fault in art is a real limitation; that if an apparent fault does not limit an artist's efficiency, it is, properly speaking, not a fault. But in reality Mrs. Meynell had in mind a discrimination of effects, which suggests a far-reaching change from the older to the more modern aims of art. The question is too large, too vague, perhaps, for summary discussion here, but its nature may be intimated by a simile. The older art, one may say, undertook to feed the emotions from below in their depths, as a spring sustains a lake; whereas the modern effort is to animate the surface, as a breeze ruffles the upper water into a brisk activity. The petulance, and broken lights, and wanton obliquities, and licentious cleverness of Meredith are in fact an integral part of his art; they are faults only by reference to a canon which had other and, it must be added, deeper designs than his. They are an efficient instrument in his treatment of the perplexities rather than the fundamentals of life, and in his desire to agitate the mind with "the rapture of the forward view" rather than to stay it on the foundations of an immutable past.

Five Months in the Himalaya: A Record of Mountain Travel in Garhwal and Kashmir. By A. L. Mumm. With illustrations and maps. New York: Longmans, Green, & Co. $6.

The expedition described in this sumptuous volume was due to the in-

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itiative of Lord Curzon, who, shortly before his resignation, suggested that the exploration of Mount Everest should be undertaken by a competent party under the auspices of the Royal Geographical Society and the Alpine Club, and promised the assistance of the Indian government. The party was formed, consisting of Dr. T. G. Longstaff and Major C. G. Bruce, both experienced mountaineers in the Himalaya, and the author, late honorary secretary of the Alpine Club; but from the refusal of Lord Morley to permit them to enter Tibet, whence was the only possible means of access to the mountain, the original design was given up and the exploration of a little-known region in British territory was undertaken. This was in the district of Garhwal, its attraction being that it contained the highest summit, Nanda Devi, in British India, and is unsurpassed "for individuality and striking and characteristic features of configuration." A large area at a great height was explored and mapped, the crowning exploit being the record ascent by Dr. Longstaff of Trisul, 23,406 feet, "the highest mountain in the world, of which the complete ascent is undisputed," and for which the Royal Geographical Society awarded him the Gill Memorial. The last part of the five months was spent by Major Bruce and the author in climbing in Kashmir.

Naturally, the account of such exploration work cannot appeal to the general public, but only to the mountaineering enthusiast or to those especially interested in the Himalayan conformation. Still to the description of the various passes, peaks, cols, glaciers, and valleys climbed or observed there are added many details of camp experiences, which, together with the vein of humor running through the narrative, lighten it, beside giving a vivid picture of life amid the eternal snows. It may be noted that the chief symptom of "mountain sickness" at very high altitudes was apparently great mental depression. The larger part of the time was spent in uninhabited regions, but when the natives were encountered, something entertaining or instructive is often told of them. For instance, referring to the strange uses to which the mountain Kashmiris put the roofs of their houses built against a steep slope, he says:

> I have seen a man on horseback select a house-top as a halting-place, when he wanted to get off and rest, and they seem to be the invariable place used for purposes of assemblage and conversation.

Mr. Mumm was the photographer of the expedition, and the reproductions of the pictures taken by him, together with several by Dr. Longstaff, fully bear out the statements as to the extraordinary beauty and individuality of the regions explored. They are 75 in number, consisting of 4 panoramas, 24 full-page plates, and 47 collotypes on India paper mounted in the text, and are fully worth the cost of the book. There are also two excellent maps.

Notes.

The new publications promised by the Malone Society for this season include the following plays: "Patient Grissell," by L. Phillips; "Fidele and Fortunio"; "Iphigenia in Aulis," translated by Lady Lumly; "The Second Maiden's Tragedy," Warburton MS., and "The Virtuous Octavia," by S. Brandon. Another volume of the society's "Collections" will also be issued.

"The Wine of the Puritans, A Study of Present-Day America," by Van Wyck Brooks, is announced for early publication by Mitchell Kennerley.

"The Study of Religion in the Italian Universities," by the Rev. Louis Henry Jordan, in collaboration with Cavaliere Baldassare Labanca, professor of the history of Christianity in the University of Rome, will be published in a few days by Henry Frowde.

George W. Jacobs & Co. announce that each volume of their new series, "Love Tales of the Nations," will contain eight or more stories by representative writers of a particular country, and the titles thus far announced include love tales American, German, English, Irish, and Scotch.

Arctic discoveries can hardly lessen the popular interest in Lieut. Shackleton's narrative of his southern expedition, promised by the J. B. Lippincott Company for November. A less sensational travel book, but one which promises much of charm, is the "Isle of Man," by Miss Agnes Herbert (John Lane Company).

For publication in October, Doubleday, Page & Co. announce, among other books, "Actions and Reactions," by Rudyard Kipling; "The Poetry of Nature," by Henry Van Dyke; "The Philosophy of Dancing," by Luther H. Gulick; "Marie Antoinette," by Hilaire Belloc; "The Story of the Negro," by Booker T. Washington; "Grimm's Fairy Tales," illustrated by Arthur Rackham.

Under the title, "Yale Readings in Insurance," the Yale University Press will publish this month two volumes edited by Prof. Lester W. Zartman: one devoted to life insurance and the other to fire and miscellaneous insurance. The original volumes of "Yale Insurance Lectures," which appeared some five years ago, are now out of print, and the present publication has been preferred to a mere reprint of the old lectures.

The list of books to be published by the University of Chicago Press during the season 1909-10 includes: "English Poems: The Elizabethan Age and the Puritan Period," by Walter C. Bronson; "The Psychology of Prayer," by Anna Louise Strong; "A Modern City: The Activities of Providence, Rhode Island," edited by William Kirk (a collection of essays by members of the faculty of Brown University); "The Armenian Awakening," by Leon Arpee; "Source Book for Social Origins: Ethnological Materials, Psychological Standpoint, and Classified Bibliographies for the Interpretation of Savage Society"; "Studies in Galilee," by E. W. C. Masterman; "The Child and His Religion," by George S. Dawson; "The Camcralists," by Albion W. Small; "Biblical Ideas of Atonement," by E. D. Burton, J. M. P. Smith, and G. B. Smith.

A selection from the earlier criticisms of George Meredith's poems and novels, made by Maurice Buxton Forman, is to be published by Chapman & Hall. The essays range in subject from the "Poems" of 1851 to the "Poems and Lyrics of the Joy of Earth," and from "The Shaving of Shagpat" to "The Tragic Comedians." The authors include Swinburne, George Eliot, W. M. Rossetti, Kingsley, James Thomson ("B. V."), Richard Garnett, Henley, Hutton, and Mark Pattison.

The official exhibition of literary material relating to Hudson and Fulton has recently been opened at the Lenox Branch of the New York Public Library. It consists of three parts—books and manuscripts, maps, and prints. The large collection of books covers fields devoted to Fulton, to his inventions, to early steam navigation, to Hudson, the discovery of the river, and its later history. Among those relating to the discovery are two of note: one is the "Historie der Neder-Landscher ende haerder Na-buren," by Emanuel van Meteren, 1614, which contains the first printed account of the finding of the Hudson River. The first detailed narrative is in "Purchas his Pilgrimes," 1625. There are many signed manuscripts in the writing of Robert Fulton, an original plan, and several books on engineering subjects by him. Among the latter is the copy of his treatise on canal navigation with the letter of the author presenting it to Napoleon Bonaparte. The maps are few in number, but include reproductions of the earliest, and several valuable originals showing New Netherland and vicinity before 1600. The section devoted to prints, which is by far the largest, consists of a few portraits of Hudson, mostly based on Count Pulaski's painting in the City Hall; portraits of Fulton, mainly copied from West's well-known painting, and numerous pictures of steamboats both prior and subsequent to 1807.

Old favorites hold their own, and though this is the anthology's heyday, we are glad to see once more a new edition of the "Golden Treasury" (The Macmillan Co.). This time there is, too, a slight spice of novelty; for we have the first and the second series bound up together in one compact volume. In the original dedication to Alfred Tennyson, Palgrave expressed a hope that his book might prove "a lifelong fountain of innocent and exalted pleasure, . . . a storehouse of delight to Labor and to Poverty." That was almost half a century ago, and no one denies, to-day, the realization of his not unambitious desire.

In editing the "Poems, Letters, and Fragments of Kirke White" for the Muses' Library (E. P. Dutton & Co.), John Drinkwater has done well to omit the less interesting material gathered together by Southey in his exaggerated esteem for the aspiring and ill-fated poet. It is true, as Mr. Drinkwater says in his introduction, that White has been too harshly depreciated or neglected of late years, following his earlier undeserved popularity. No one to-day would try to set White up as a great poet, but there are passages of minor

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sublimity in his works, slight anticipations of romance, and withal a purity of sentiment that are still capable of interesting those who care to read him. Not the least entertaining piece in the volume is White's letter to John Charlesworth on the loneliness of a student's life at Cambridge. We can see no reason for including his prose fragments.

When prairie chickens nested in the heart of Chicago, and Indians hunted over the sites of most of the great Western universities, Miami had already been conceived, named, and endowed with lands by the General Assembly of Ohio. In commemoration of the hundredth anniversary of its birth Mr. Alfred H. Upham recalls its ancient history in a volume entitled "Old Miami," with the rather startling sub-title, "The Yale of the Early West" (The Republican Publishing Company). Though the style of the book is familiar and tinged with slang, and though the substance is unnecessarily slight, there are not wanting little flashes of light into the dark backward of Western culture. Fifteen years after its inception Miami University was actually opened for students in the auspiciously named village of Oxford, near the Indiana line. In those Arcadian days youthful pioneers hungering after knowledge could be filled therewith from November to May at a total cost of $93, including, beside tuition, servant's hire, candles, wood, washing, and board. To prevent interference with the regular curriculum, however, the faculty found it necessary, even with that simple standard of living, to enact laws against duelling, dancing, and the possession of backgammon boards. Indeed, one of the statutes of 1842 indicates the presence among the undergraduates of some of those man-eating Middle Westerners that Dickens found so obnoxious on his American travels. "No student," so runs the injunction, "shall wear about his person pistol, dirk, stiletto, or other dangerous weapon." With such timber to shape it is no wonder that the discipline was austere. "Found in bed after the rising hour"—such is the heading of one of the university black lists—and the academic day began at five! Yet under the mollifying influence of morning and evening prayers, and neighboring "female institutions," barbarism yielded rapidly to sweetness and light. Miami published one of the earliest literary journals; founded two or three of the oldest Greek letter societies; produced Benjamin Harrison; and was instrumental, says the historian, in the formation of almost innumerable matrimonial alliances. Best of all, perhaps, Miami University has lived down the onus of its name, and has become, says Mr. Upham, "a high-grade small college."

Professor Manly's "English Prose, 1137-1890" (Ginn), like his companion collection of English poetry, differs favorably from the general run of single-volume treasuries in the extent, the range, and the interest of its contents. The book, though not uncomfortably bulky, contains 539 double columns of text, equal to over 1,500 average octavo pages—ample material, in other words, to illustrate a full year's introductory course in prose. In the second place, it includes, beginning with the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," a considerable number of selections of historical importance, such as passages from the "Ancren Riwle," the "English Proclamation of Henry III," the translations of Wiclif, Froissart, Sir Thomas More, etc., which are difficult or impossible to procure at reasonable expense in quantities sufficient to accommodate large classes. Finally, Professor Manly has not bound up a mass of the first trite specimens that came to hand; but apparently has spared no pains to find examples which, with the help of even a moderately good teacher, can be made to impinge vividly upon the consciousness of a moderately good student—a quality very rare and desirable in a text-book. Now and then he has perhaps questionably sacrificed representativeness to interest; for example, Bishop Berkeley appears not as an idealist philosopher, but as the author of the piquant "Proposal for a College to be erected in the Summer Islands." The arrangement of the authors under the customary periods according to the date of their births is simple and satisfactory; but since this arrangement throws several of the selections out of their chronological order, it would have been well to supply in each case the date of publication. We inevitably miss a number of important writers—Baxter, Spencer, Mill, Huxley—and Professor Manly assures us that he laments such omissions more bitterly than any one else. Yet, all things considered—abundance, variety, interest, range, compactness, and legibility—this is decidedly the most useful thing of its kind in the field.

A fascinating account of the wonderful marine zoölogy of the South Californian coast, as seen from a glass-bottom boat, is given in the *National Geographic Magazine* for September by the naturalist, Charles Fred. Holder. The striking illustrations of the strange and beautiful creatures unconstrained in their habitat confirm his assertion that by this means of observation "a new and valuable ally to science education has been established." Ellsworth Huntington describes a journey in the region where Russia, Persia, and Afghanistan meet, in which he shows how much in evidence are Russian military preparations, in numerous army posts and colonies planted at strategic points, for an eventual advance southward to the ocean. There are also interesting illustrated accounts of visits to a mountain monastery in Thessaly to which access is had by means of a fishnet, and to a picturesque prehistoric ruin and cave-dwellings in New Mexico.

Impressions of Canada by English and French travellers from the Old World are interesting if not always convincing. Dr. Adrien Loir visited Canada in 1906, as a delegate to the Medical Congress held at Three Rivers. He spent his leisure in visiting different parts of the Dominion, and he has recorded his impressions in this volume ("Canada et les Canadiens"; Guilmoto: Paris). He confesses quite frankly, at the outset, that he landed at Montreal with little or no knowledge of the country. He was under the impression that the handful of French left in Canada after the conquest of 1759 had long since been thoroughly assimilated by the English. It was, as one can readily believe, something of a surprise to him to find that there were to-day two millions of descendants of the Canadians who stood about Montcalm in 1759, and that they had not only not been assimilated by their English-speaking fellow-countrymen, but that they clung tenaciously to their language, their religion, and their ideals; that they were in fact a nation within a nation. In his astonishment, Dr. Loir perhaps swung a little too far the other way, for there can be no doubt that in many ways English influence has been felt, and is being increasingly felt in the Province of Quebec. Dr. Loir made a brief visit to Ontario, and was properly impressed with the material progress of that well-to-do province, but one can see that he was impatient to return to his long lost "cousins" in the neighboring French province. After a visit to the governor-general, Earl Grey, whom he had met in South Africa, he spent several weeks in the Canadian Northwest, where he was equally astonished by the tremendous agricultural possibilities of the country, and the energy with which its resources were being developed. On the whole he concludes that Canada is still a long way from achieving homogeneity. The people of Ontario are English, and the people of Quebec are French, in language, manners, and ideals. As for Western Canada, Dr. Loir, like his eloquent fellow-countryman, Dr. Seigfried, is persuaded that its manifest destiny is to be absorbed by the United States. He is not quite clear as to what is to become of Eastern Canada, but we are left with the impression that the Eastern provinces may be permitted to remain under the British flag.

Mr. Thomas Gibson's "Library of Speculation and Investment" (The Gibson Publishing Co.) comprises seven little volumes compactly boxed, containing selections from his weekly and special market letters of 1907 and 1908, together with separate discussions of speculation and the increasing gold supply. The first letter, dated February 2, 1907, prognosticates "the market of the future." In large capitals he tells his readers: "There will be no panic." Under date of November 2, 1907, we read that "in March there was a 'silent panic' which carried prices to what looked like bargain figures." Whether the "silent panic" in his opinion became audible in the fall, we do not know; but in his Foreword, he admits his error in prophecy, but remarks that when the "words were penned, I had in mind rather a panic of *stock prices* than a panic of the *mind*"; and adds, "in truth, we had no great or panicky decline in stock prices in any one session." The deliciousness of this is equalled by his indignant remark on October 26, 1907, (p. 156) that: "Nine out of ten of the men and women who stand in line at the banks . . . cannot understand how an institution may be solvent and yet be forced to suspend. This is ridiculous but it is true." It certainly *is* ridiculous. The volume entitled "The Pitfalls of Speculation" contains an interesting article, "What 500 Speculative Accounts Showed." The accounts were mainly in Steel Common. Of the 500, 343 resulted in a net loss; 88 in a net profit; 52 closed comparatively even; and seventeen were unknown. Over 90 per cent. of those evidently worked by "systems" showed a loss. The total losses amounted to $957,000, and the total brokerage charges, commissions, interest, etc., to $275,000.

The late Rev. Dr. George Matheson's "Spiritual Development of St. Paul," which was published in 1890 and passed through repeated editions, having proved the most

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popular of the many writings of its distinguished author, has been reprinted by Thomas Whittaker.

A welcome addition to the series of Oxford Classical Texts (Henry Frowde) is the "Hellenica Oxyrhynchia cum Theopompi et Cratippi Fragmentis." This text is edited—with a preface, critical annotations, an index of authors, and an index of names—by Prof. Bernard P. Grenfell and Arthur S. Hunt, Fellows of Queen's College, Oxford. In the same series, Prof. Hermann Diels of Berlin has edited the "Characteres" of Theophrastus. There is here the same richness of critical apparatus, and a preface of rather more formidable proportions. In the library of Latin texts, we have, besides, Cicero's "Orationes," to the number of eight, edited by Albert Curtis Clark, Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford. Once more the *Nation* calls attention to the high standard of typographical excellence and of scholarship maintained in successive issues of this "Scriptorum Classicorum Bibliotheca Oxoniensis."

Through Curt Kabitzsch, Würzburg, Artur Singer makes an interesting and altogether successful attempt, in his "Bismarck in der Literatur," to review the position thus far secured by the great German Chancellor in history and criticism. Nearly two hundred and fifty pages are required to present the material collected, which embraces thousands of foreign titles. French and English works are in the majority, but American, Russian, Spanish, Dutch, and Belgian writers are well represented. Italy, in proportion, seems to have been least conscious of the Master of the North.

The publication house of Stephan Geibel in Altenburg begins, under the general title of Deutsche Bürgerbibliothek für Jugend und Volk, a new collection of popular stories illustrating particularly the political, historical, and economic life of the German people. The editor, Arthur Wiegand, opens the series with a narrative called "Wilhelm," which gives a characteristic picture of German soldier life and the military condition of the Germans from the Roman period down to the present age.

Dr. Konrad Haebler has issued the first instalment of the third volume of his "Typenrepertorium der Wiegendrucke" (Leipzig: R. Haupt; see the *Nation*, Vol. LXXXI, p. 300). It contains the tables of the Roman types, repeating those given in the first part. A following instalment will contain the tables of the Gothic types used in non-German countries, with additions and emendations to the whole work. The Roman types, with their stiff and monotonous forms, have required a closer scrutiny than the Gothic, with their manifold individuality; and a much greater number of auxiliary characteristics have been brought out in the present volume.

A catalogue of the incunabula in the libraries of Leipzig, "Die Wiegendrucke der Leipziger Sammlungen," has been prepared by Dr. Otto Günther of the University Library and issued as a volume of the *Beihefte zum Zentralblatt f. Bibliothekswesen* (Leipzig: Harrassowitz). It is arranged according to the same principles as Voullième's catalogue of the incunabula in the libraries of Berlin, and is, like that work, to be regarded as a preliminary contribution to the general catalogue of incunabula in German libraries which is in preparation under the auspices of a Prussian special commission.

"The Oxford Student's History of India," by Vincent A. Smith (Henry Frowde), is intended primarily for students preparing for the matriculation examination of the Calcutta University but it may also be commended to the general reader as a clear and comprehensive outline of events. As the selection of topics conforms to the requirements of the latest syllabus, the history of the last hundred years receives but scanty attention; but space has been found, on the other hand, for brief treatment of Indian literature, art, and philosophy. There are seven good maps, but the few illustrations are condemnably cheap.

In consequence of the appeal of the rector of the University of Paris, Dr. Liard, the well-known liberal banker, Albert Kahn, who was already contributing 75,000 francs annually to young savants for travelling, has added 30,000 as an annual gift to the university, for the double purpose of rewarding more young scholars who have made important discoveries, and of paying the expenses of famous foreign scholars for lecturing in Paris or of French professors for lecturing abroad. Dr. Liard asked for the sum of two million francs, bearing 60,000 francs interest, for these purposes, and M. Kahn has now given one-half of the sum desired.

Science.

TWENTIETH ANNIVERSARY OF CLARK UNIVERSITY.

WORCESTER, Mass, September 16.

At most of the great anniversaries lately celebrated by American universities there has been much state and pageantry. Clark University, on the other hand, with a modesty becoming its youth and its size, has celebrated the twentieth anniversary of its foundation for three weeks with but the very slightest ceremonial. The money at its disposal was paid chiefly to a few of the most eminent men of science abroad and at home, and a careful programme for a week in each department, which usually held three sessions a day, was prepared. Most of those who gathered together were themselves professors, who lectured to each other in turn, the lectures being followed generally by free conferences. It is not surprising to learn that in the commendations of the university the chief theme was the uniqueness and high scientific tone of this mode of celebration, which many hope will mark a new type of festivity wherever science and a true university spirit are cultivated.

The mathematical discussions were inspiring. Prof. E. H. Moore of Chicago, in his lectures on "Postulational Methods in Mathematics," showed how every branch of mathematics is based upon assumptions, whose consequences are developed until they show themselves to be contradictory, and are then modified in such manner that the results of the assumptions in their final form at any stage of development shall be consistent. In this way the whole field of mathematics is unified and the different branches appear as so many particular sets of postulates and their consequences, each set being consistent in itself, and all the sets together making up a system of all the combinations that have proved themselves to be useful. His theory, profoundly and subtly suggestive, constitutes a contribution of first importance to mathematics, and serves, like Lie's theory of continuous groups, to unify various widely separated branches of mathematics, showing underlying relations hitherto not even suspected. The other lectures may be regarded as in some measure illustrations of these ideas. Professor Pierpont extended the notion of "integral" so as to include cases not considered heretofore, and Professor Van Vleck applied the solution of a certain type of difference equations to that of a type of differential equations.

The exercises of the department of physics were totally devoid of ostentation, and were intended, like the rest, to emphasize the idea of research. It was fortunately possible to present the spectacle of the conjunction of two stars of the first magnitude in Prof. Albert Abraham Michelson of Chicago and Prof. Ernest Rutherford of Manchester, England, Nobel prize-winners of the last two years. Professor Michelson's lecture gave a description of his new engine for ruling diffraction gratings for the study of spectra, which surpasses even the wonderful accuracy attained by the late Professor Rowland. The results of his researches on the apparent fixity of the luminiferous ether with respect to the earth have baffled physicists for the past twenty years, and it was accordingly particularly gratifying that Prof. Vito Volterra of Rome, one of the greatest of living mathematical physicists, should have chosen for the subject of his first lecture "The Theory of Electric and Luminous Waves," giving a clear exposition of the Principle of Relativity, that daring assault on the notions of time and space which is now setting physicists by the ears and leading to critical reëxamination of Newtonian mechanics. Without its aid Professor Michelson's result has hitherto proved inexplicable. The Principle of Relativity, in a word, states that the *time* of an event can be known only when it is known *where* it takes place, and that the *where* can be known only when the *time* is known, time and space being interrelated by the velocity of light in the ether. In his lectures on Elasticity, Volterra gave new and beautiful results, while his last lecture on the mechanics of "heredity," or the influence of past phenomena on the fu-

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ture, communicated a new creation in this mathematical field which has long been the despair of the physicists. The method devised by Volterra leads to a new department of mathematical analysis, the subject of "integro-differential equations," the history of the past being mathematically expressed by integrals whose effect on the present is expressed by differential equations. The recipients of academic honors in their responses were particularly kind in their recognition of the efforts made at Clark to bind together the two sciences of mathematics and physics, and to mitigate what Prof. G. A. Miller has lately called "our lamentable and disgraceful lack of mathematical physicists."

One of the most attractive of the eminent foreign savants who came to this country expressly to attend the celebration was Sigmund Freud of Vienna. Far too little is known in America of either the man or his work. For twenty years he has been publishing memoirs, and even volumes, based upon his vast clinical experience with cases of hysteria and allied phenomena. A pupil of Charcot and Westphal, he has developed what may now almost be called a new system of psychology, which seems to a growing number of workers in this field, of whom the writer is one, to be the best word yet spoken there. His views are now beginning to be talked of in Germany as the psychology of the future, as Wagner's music was once dubbed the music of the future. And yet, partly because so much that he taught was new and revolutionary, he has until lately had but scant recognition; and because he attempts to do justice to sex in his scheme, he was for years socially ostracized. Happily, however, he is now coming to his own and a growing circle of very vigorous young men in all civilized countries are giving him due recognition and working out his ideas. It is difficult to give, in brief and lucid phrase, any adequate conception of a system that has so many details and even technicalities. It seems certainly to go distinctly beyond Janet; and if it be confirmed, it plays havoc with many of the systems of both philosophical and of laboratory psychology. Some general idea of what it means might be suggested as follows: Dr. Freud does not accept consciousness as the oracle of the soul in any such sense as does modern psychology of the type, *e g.*, of Wundt or James. More likely, he would say, consciousness never says what it means, but must always be interpreted. It is rather essentially superficial and misleading. It is a compromise between the real nature of the soul and its environment, which is at so many points repressive. Dreams, for instance, are the springing up into consciousness of various undeveloped or repressed remnants of the daily activity; and if the missing links can be supplied, they are not only rational but of the highest interpretative value. Wit is another key to the activity of the submerged self; so are automatic actions, unintended errors of speech, inflection, etc. Freud is the father of the psychoanalysis, one aspect of which has been popularized in this country by Münsterberg in the Harry Orchard case. He is also the father of something very like the hypnoidization of Sidis, which, instead of hypnotizing the patient, asks him merely to sit in absolute quiet and mention whatever thoughts occur to him, which, no matter how apparently irrelevant, are always shown by a little interpretation to be very much in point. Strangely enough, Freud had scarcely heard of the Emmanuel Movement in this country; but having listened to all that he could learn about it, he expressed the emphatic opinion that it was utterly unscientific and that work with psychic functions was far too complex and intricate to be trusted to non-experts. It was remarked at Clark several times by his chief European pupil, Professor Jung of Zurich, who was with him, that the invitation to America, the honorary degree bestowed upon him, and especially the sympathetic attitude of those who heard him, came at the psychological moment for him personally as well as for his views.

In the department of education and school hygiene the noteworthy feature was the emphasis placed upon school hygiene and mental hygiene. The former subject was represented by Dr. Leo Burgerstein of the University of Vienna, co-author of Burgerstein and Netolitzky's "Handbuch der Schulhygiene," the world's leading authority on the subject; mental hygiene was treated by Dr. C. G. Jung, specialist in psychiatry in the University of Zürich. The most interesting lecture of Dr. Burgerstein was, perhaps, that on co-education and hygiene, in which he discussed the subject in the light of modern scientific studies of the physical differences between boys and girls. He emphasized the need of differentiating secondary education for boys and girls where they are taught together, and expressed the belief that co-education is gaining ground in central European countries. Dr. Jung explained and illustrated his well-known *diagnostische Assoziationsmethode*. The significance of these lectures lies not so much in the practical application of this method in the detection of crime, as exploited by Professor Münsterberg, nor alone in the applications in diagnosis of mental diseases; but, rather, in the fact that the investigations by Dr. Jung represent pioneer work which promises to throw light on the underlying principles of a sound and scientific doctrine of mental hygiene.

Other lectures were given by distinguished scholars of this country and Europe. Some of these, though they cannot be summarized here, were of the first importance in their respective subjects. Honorary degrees were conferred upon twenty-one recipients.

A Treatise on Zoölogy. Edited by Sir E. Ray Lankester. Part I: Introduction and Protozoa. By Prof. S. J. Hickson, F. W. Gamble, A. Willey, J. J. Lister, H. M. Woodcock, and the late Professor Weldon. New York: The Macmillan Co. $5.25 net.

The developments in our knowledge of the unicellular microscopic animals during the last decade, especially in the domain of preventive medicine, make any addition to the literature of the subject timely and valuable. Not only because of their importance in modern pathology and of their relations to many infectious diseases, but also because of their general scientific interest, the Protozoa demand attention from all who follow biological pursuits. Standing as they do, on the border line of animals and plants, and leading from the simplest of living things through thousands of grades of increasing complexity, to the higher animals, or Metazoa, they offer to the investigator a wealth of material for the study of living processes which in higher animals are hidden under a cloak of complex organs and intricate activities.

The present volume, written by several men eminent in the field of English biology, does not prejudice the reader in favor of any special line of protozoan investigation, but aims, rather, to give a general outline of the entire group from a zoölogical point of view. As a basis, therefore, for more specialized work in different lines of protozoan research, the book has a greater value than any of the others of more limited scope that have appeared in the last few years.

Unfortunately, as with all such collaborated works, the various groups of Protozoa are not equally well presented, and the treatment of some of the topics indicates plainly that the authors are writing from a library rather than a laboratory knowledge of the subject. This may be one reason why the work contains few references later than 1906. Furthermore, the genus Spirochæta, which, since 1905, when Schaudinn discovered the minute organism in syphilitic victims, has been a fruitful object of research in every civilized country, is not named in the body of the book but appears in a short paragraph in an appendix.

The introduction by the editor is little more than a re-wording of the same author's ideas published in the eighties in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," although he proposes one or two new terms, such as "periplasm" (instead of

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cytoplasm) and "conio-karyote" (powder nucleated), which, we venture to predict, will not be used again. The sections on Proteomyxa, by S. J. Hickson; Mycetozoa, by J. J. Lister, and Hæmoflagellates, by H. M. Woodcock, are extremely valuable; the last, however, differs little from an earlier publication by the same writer in the *Quarterly Journal of Microscopical Science*, 1906.

Although there are few original figures, the book is well illustrated and, taken altogether, forms a most acceptable companion to the volumes of the Treatise which have already appeared.

Alan E. Munby's "Introduction to the Chemistry and Physics of Building Materials" (D. Van Nostrand Co.) is an unusual book in scope and treatment. Its purpose is to explain the scientific principles involved in the use of building materials in such a way as to be comprehensible to one who has no previous knowledge of physics or chemistry. Probably this is an impossible undertaking. It is hardly likely that a man who had never seen a chemical symbol before he opened the book would be able by the time he had reached p. 203 to understand the difference between Le Chatelier's crystalloid theory and Michaelis's colloid theory of the setting of Portland cement. But if he fails it is not the fault of the author, who does his best to make things plain and to define scientific terms as he goes along. It is, indeed, rather surprising to see how much of the fundamental sciences of physics, chemistry, mineralogy, and geology can be brought into the hundred pages which constitute the first part of the book. Part ii is devoted to the consideration of the varieties, composition, properties, and tests of building stone, cements, metals, timber, and paint. The book will not be so useful to the uneducated or self-educated builder and mechanic as to one who has had a smattering of school science but is not able to apply it to his work. The use of British names for stone and other building materials impairs the value of the book for the American public. The author ventures one novelty in nomenclature, the introduction of the word "ferra" for ferric oxide, to correspond with alumina. The term would certainly come handy in the discussion of rock formulas.

From the middle of the sixteenth century, when Mercator employed the hyperbolic functions in producing the famous Mercator map, down to the present time, the use of these functions has steadily increased with the growth of natural science. To-day they find application not only in every branch of pure physics, but also in applied physics, as in the decay of light or electricity, or in expressing measurable mechanical strains like geological deformations. Accordingly, a wide variety of science students will welcome Messrs. Becker and Van Orstrand's "Hyperbolic Functions" (Smithsonian Institution), which consists of seven tables of values of these and closely related functions.

Dr. William Christopher Krauss died in New York city September 21, in his forty-sixth year. He was a graduate of Cornell University, of the Bellevue Hospital Medical College, and of the University of Berlin; had served as president of the American Microscopical Society and other learned societies, and was a recognized authority on nervous diseases. Dr. Krauss was the author of a "Textbook of Insanity" and of many articles published in scientific journals. He was associate editor of the Buffalo *Medical Journal* and of the Berlin *Neurologisches Centralblatt*.

From Spruce Creek, Newfoundland, comes news of the death, September 20, of Dr. Leonard Pearson, dean of the Veterinary School of the University of Pennsylvania since 1897. He was born at Evansville, Ind., in 1868, and was graduated from the Agricultural School of Cornell University, and afterwards from the veterinary department of the University of Pennsylvania. Dr. Pearson also studied in Berlin and Dresden and in the laboratory of Dr. Koch. In 1891 he became assistant professor of the theory and practice of veterinary medicine at the University of Pennsylvania. He has served as president of the American Veterinary Association and other organizations. In 1895 he became State veterinarian of Pennsylvania. He contributed many papers on the veterinary sciences and on zoötechnics to the journals, to Johnson's "Encyclopædia," and to the *Veterinary Magazine*, of which he was the editor.

William Thayer Smith, M.D., dean of the Dartmouth Medical School, died at Hanover, N. H., on September 17, at the age of seventy-one years. He was the son of the Rev. Asa Dodge Smith, a former president of Dartmouth College, and was born in New York on March 30, 1839. In 1878 he was graduated from the Dartmouth Medical School, in which he was to become a professor of physiology in 1885, and dean in 1896. Dr. Smith was the author of "Elementary Physiology and Hygiene" and "Primer of Physiology."

Drama and Music.

Was Shakspere a Gentleman? By Samuel A. Tannenbaum. New York: The Tenny Press.

Mr. Tannenbaum sets himself to show that of two applications by John Shakespeare to the Heralds' College in 1596 and in 1599, the first application only was granted. The particular point of attack is this passage of Sidney Lee's:

> His father's application now [1599] took a new form. No grant of arms was asked for. It was asserted without qualification that the coat had been assigned to John Shakespeare, while he was bailiff, and the heralds were merely invited to give him a "recognition" or "exemplification" of it. An exemplification was invariably secured more easily than a new grant of arms. The heralds might, if they chose, tacitly accept without examination, the applicant's statement that his family had borne arms long ago, and they thereby regarded themselves as relieved of the obligation of close inquiry into his present status. The college officers were characteristically complacent.

Answering Mr. Lee's objection that the direct granting of arms in the 1599 transactions proves they could not have been allowed in 1596, Mr. Tannenbaum insists that the request in 1599 was merely to be allowed to impale the Arden arms with those of the Shakespeares, and that it was a frequent abuse with the heralds to "assign, grant and confirm" an old patent each time that its holder applied for an additional distinction, thus forcing payment anew of the original fee. Whatever be the force of this, Mr. Tannenbaum is certainly on dangerous ground when he urges that if John Shakespeare in a deed of 1597 was still described as "yoman," it was because in three months his new honors would not have become generally known and because, as the deed was in Latin, he would not have noted the error himself. This is dangerously near *évidence pour rire*.

In eight pieces of evidence, positive and negative, Mr. Tannenbaum finds support for his two contentions. From the absence of any impaling of the Arden with the Shakespeare arms by any member of the Shakespeare family, though their arms are found quartered with those of persons who intermarried with them, he concludes that the 1599 request was not approved by the College. His point that a member of the College, circa 1601, accused Dethick and Camden of having granted arms improperly in numerous instances, John Shakespeare's being one, merely proves that arms were granted, but clears not at all the choice between 1596 and 1599. His next point, that in their reply Camden and Dethick sketch in the Shakespeare arms only, and in no way speak of the Arden arms, perhaps strengthens Mr. Tannenbaum's contention that it was the 1596 request which was granted. He refers to Harleian MS. 6140 at folio 45, and to the sixth edition of Guillim's "Display of Heraldry" (1724,) as showing a tricking or description of the Shakespeare arms with, in each case, the statement that they were granted by Dethick. This to Mr. Tannenbaum means 1596, for by 1599 Camden was also Garter; but he is forced to admit that no one has been able to find the exact source of these two statements. Of course, too, the second may rest on the first, and both may be only the popular tradition as to Shakespeare, which in many cases must be discounted. His best arguments are his fifth and sixth: the present Richmond Herald wrote him in 1908 that the "Index College of Arms," "a book," to quote this herald, "in which the Officers of Arms make notes of any Coats of Arms they are interested in," contains a description of the Shakespeare arms and states that they were "granted 20 October, 1596, to John Shakspere, of Stratford-on-Avon, in Com. Warr., Gent., per Will. Dethick." This entry, it is known, was made in the first half of the eighteenth

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century. The Richmond Herald also wrote:

The [Shakespeare] arms appear again in the assignment for Arden in 1599, clearly proving, if proof were necessary, that the 1596 patent did pass, otherwise they would not have been inserted in the Patent. The issuing of the Patent has never been questioned here.

Finally, Mr. Tannenbaum urges that after 1597 Shakespeare is described as "Gent" and "Master" in numerous documents and in the published writings of contemporaries, and that this would, in the light of existing regulations of the College, have been impossible if not authorized. He thinks Mr. Lee's contention that complacency granted in 1599 what had not been granted in 1596 is negatived by the fact that Dethick would not have dared to be thus complacent, since in June, 1597, he had been declared culpable in granting an unwarranted exemplification to one Rotheram.

That arms were granted all this evidence shows; but the one strong bit of evidence in favor of 1596 over 1599 is the unequivocal statement of the present Richmond Herald that the appearance of the Shakespeare arms in the assignment for Arden in 1599 means they must have been first granted in 1596. The rest of the evidence is either repetition of a tradition which is not traced, in its source, earlier than the first half of the eighteenth century, or a question of probabilities The little book forms an effective attack on Mr. Lee's position by the doubt it raises, not by the conclusion it proves true.

The Philharmonic Society will give this season thirty-three concerts in Carnegie Hall, or more than twice the customary number. These concerts, all of which will be directed by Gustav Mahler, have been divided into four series and a Christmas Day concert, as follows:

First series—Eight Thursday evenings at 8:15: November 4 and 25, December 16, 1909; January 6 and 20, February 3 and 17, March 10, 1910. Eight Friday afternoons at 2:30: November 5 and 26, December 17, 1909; January 7 and 21, February 4 and 18, March 11, 1910. This series corresponds with the regular series given by the society in former seasons, the Thursday evenings being substituted for the Saturday evening of previous years.

Second series—Historical cycle. Six Wednesday evenings at 8:15: November 10, December 8, December 29, 1909; January 26, March 2, March 30, 1910.

Third series—Beethoven cycle. Five Friday afternoons at 2:30: November 19, December 31, 1909; January 14, March 4, April 1, 1910.

Fourth series—Five Sunday afternoons at 2:30: November 21, December 12, 1909; January 16, February 13, March 6, 1910, and a Christmas Day concert, December 25, at 3 P. M.

The Kneisel Quartet's sixteenth New York season will begin on November 23, at Mendelssohn Hall. Other concerts will be given on December 14, January 4, January 25, February 15, and March 8. Matinées will be given in the same place on March 15 and April 5. Composers on the programmes will include Beethoven, Carl von Dittersdorf, Haydn, Mozart, Cherubini, Schubert, Schumann, Robert Volkmann, Brahms, Mendelssohn, César Franck, Tchaikovsky, Dvorák, Saint-Saëns, and Giovanni Sgambati.

Will L. Thompson, music publisher and writer of many sacred songs, died on September 20 in New York city. He was born in Beaver County, Pa., in 1847, and received his musical education in the Boston Music School, the Boston Conservatory of Music, and the Leipzig Conservatory.

John Lassalle, well known as a baritone singer in opera, died in Paris on September 7. Born in Lyons in 1847, his studies at Paris in painting and music were followed by his début at Liège in 1869. His career at the Paris Opéra extended over twenty-three years, and he made frequent appearances at Covent Garden as well. In 1903 he was appointed professor of singing at the Paris Conservatoire.

Sally Liebling, a distinguished German pianist, a pupil of Liszt and, in 1888, founder of the new Berlin Conservatory, died in that city September 16. He was born at Posen, Germany, in 1859. In 1875 he visited the United States, playing with Thomas's Orchestra, and he has since then made many concert tours in America and on the European Continent.

Art.

MR. M'KIM AND AMERICAN ARCHITECTURE.

The first feeling of friends of the late Charles F. McKim must be one of deep personal loss. The human attractiveness of this architect was so great as to make men almost forget his professional accomplishments. "Charles the Charmer" Saint-Gaudens called him in a public speech. But here we can speak of him only as the senior member of the firm which, for the last generation, has been more influential than any other in reflecting and determining the taste of this country in their art.

True, Mr. McKim might have fulfilled this description without being an artist at all. He might have been simply the "business man" of a fashionable firm, which "kept" artists, as the proprietor of a famous blacking factory was alleged to have "kept a poet." After his studies in Paris, Mr. McKim returned to America, on his defence. He was made to feel that he must justify his training by adapting its results to the conditions of his native land. Hunt and Richardson underwent that experience, and it did them both good. The architectural "culture" of the period in America was committed to the Gothic revival, in which one might have expected this neophyte to join. His first essays were, in fact, in that direction, the most noteworthy of them being, perhaps, the seashore cottage in New Jersey where Garfield was sent in the desperate hope "that he might heal him of his grievous wound." These early experiments were in the fashion of the time. They tended to bear out, as to their author, the belief that Stevenson expressed about Mr. Howells: "A man, as I read him, of an originally strong romantic bent"; in the eyes of the romanticists, they gave to his subsequent conversion to classicism the color of apostasy. It is, at any rate, certain that, in his maturity, with the exception of a church in Morristown, N. J., which is a careful and sensitive compilation in late English Gothic, Mr. McKim abjured romance.

It would be hard to say how far Mr. McKim's partners may have influenced him. The admirable fraternity and loyalty of the members of the firm were for the most part sufficient to prevent wrong attributions. One could be at no loss, among their earliest works, to assign the "Bank of Banks" at Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street, and the Tiffany house at Madison Avenue and Seventy-second, to Stanford White; while one would be inclined to declare that the Roman palace lower down in Madison Avenue, and of nearly the same date, was by McKim "lined" with White—to ascribe the exteriors to the senior and interiors to the junior partner. But the Agricultural Building at the Chicago Fair was the individual work of Mr. McKim; and that re-study of the Baths of Caracalla was the most classical in spirit of all the works at the fair which were not mere reproductions. From a Roman motive it derived an Hellenic result, insomuch that at the time Swinburne's praise of Landor was plausibly transferred to it:

> And, through the trumpet of a child of Rome,
> Rang the pure music of the flutes of Greece.

Fully as individual is the general plan of the new buildings of Columbia University, and the library in which that general conception has been carried out in its own grandiose and monumental sense. Mr. McKim was one of the three architects invited by the trustees, upon their purchase of the site on Morningside Heights, to prepare a general plan for its development, and to the study of the problems which this involved he devoted nearly two years, looking not only to the immediate needs and resources of the university, but to the far future, and laying foundations upon which others might build. While he was most ably assisted by his associates, Mr. White designing Schermerhorn Hall and Mr. Mead the Engineering Building, the general plan was Mr. McKim's own in a literal sense, and no one feature of it more so than the South Court, to which he attached special value, not only on account of its architectural importance, but as expressing the open door of the whole university. Quite in the same class is the fragment which alone is thus far visible of the large design for the

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Brooklyn Institute. Of more questionable success is the University Club. In spite of Congressional carping, one may be permitted to cite the restoration of the White House in Washington as the carrying out of the original designer's conception on a scale and with a sumptuosity of which he would not have ventured to dream. More important was McKim's restoration and extension of L'Enfant's original plan of Washington. It had become so overlaid with defacements that the first duty of the commission, of which McKim was the leading spirit, was to clear them away and enable the design to assert itself. But the work included extensions, to meet later needs, and these were made with perfect sympathy and true artistic intelligence.

The chief monument of Mr. McKim's powers will probably remain the Boston Public Library. This has been dismissed by high critical authority as a "copy" from the Library of Ste. Geneviève in Paris. Ste. Geneviève is soon said. But to say no more is discreditably to ignore the great and sensitive care that has been taken in the adjustment and extension and modification of the prototype. In fact, few modern buildings so forcibly evince that they have been affectionately "lived with" by their designers, from the first conception to the last detail, insomuch that the very sidewalk "belongs." The Boston Public Library is a rare success, and of itself would justify all the honors that have been bestowed, at home and abroad, upon its author.

Mr. McKim's career fell in an epoch fruitful for American architecture. Monumental buildings, for public or business use, were, in his lifetime, rising in greater numbers than ever before, while increasing wealth and a more chastened taste were giving architects tempting opportunities in the erection of private houses, both in city and country. Indeed, it is the envious testimony of foreigners that America is to-day a kind of promised land for architecture. To have contributed so much to the wise guidance of this artistic movement is one of the just titles of Charles McKim to remembrance. John Delane of the London *Times* once wrote that he thought of setting up as an architect, since he had the first requisite to success—namely, entire ignorance of the business. It would be a libel to say that anything like this was true of American architects at the time Mr. McKim began to work; but there has certainly been enormous progress since that day, and his example and counsels have not been the least of the powers at work.

"Dutch Bulbs and Gardens" (The Macmillan Co.) is another of the books illustrated in color, which prove the ability of modern water-color artists. Miss Mina Nixon's pictures, as here represented, are excellent—better, as affording backgrounds and landscape values, than the glaring color-patches which too many painters of Dutch flower-fields are fond of giving us. Besides such subjects, her glimpses of the palace gardens at Het Loo are charming. As for the text, in such books it is quite a matter of course that it should not closely correspond with the pictures, and it should, perhaps, not be taken too seriously. But one wishes that Miss Silberrad's chapters spoke more of Dutch gardens, which may be assumed to be, in spite of Dutch thrift, for pleasure rather than profit, and to show some national characteristics of design and taste. The author's English is careless; she is, further, a little given to quotations concerning old-time fashion in bulbs, so that she teases us by hovering on the fringe of the subject of bulb-growing. The appendices (which may be assumed to be by Miss Sophie Lyall, whose name is on the title page; her connection with the book is otherwise not clear) are odd combinations of translation and critique, both concerning bulb-growing 140 years ago. What changes time has made in the custom and the science we are not told. But, apart from these disappointments, the text will be of interest to American gardeners, since it shows the origin of the bulbs which we buy in such quantities. The book gives the reader a welcome view of a community that has been pursuing its work for generations, and of individuals whose quiet devotion is yearly increasing the world's minor beauties. We must, after reading, acknowledge our debt to the Dutch.

It is a rather wan philosophy that Vernon Lee (Miss Violet Paget) unfolds in her "Laurus Nobilis" (John Lane Co.). As A. C. Benson makes a too conscious cult of sweet reasonableness, so Miss Paget makes one of serenity. But this serenity is hardly spontaneous; it has been valiantly fought for, and the dust and heat of that strife are still too apparent. Having achieved a permanent attitude, however, Miss Paget is determined to make the universe square with it. She sets out to prove that the development of the æsthetic faculties will foster the growth of the altruistic instincts, bring men into harmony with the universe, and aid the nobler self-realization of the individual. These are assertions that no one would willingly deny. But Miss Paget's instructive air serves only to throw into relief her unconsciousness of the nature of any satisfying demonstration. Thus to say that a whole school of modern artists is at sixes and sevens with the universe may be a convenient fashion of speaking. In a philosophical essay it lays itself open to the retort that these artists are themselves but parts of an indivisible universe which cannot, rationally, be at sixes and sevens with itself. As the expression of a temperament her book is hardly more persuasive. From her æsthetic world the keen winds and arduous waters would be banished, in it light and flame would die, and under the last rays of a perpetual sunset we should wander in the attitude of the saints and martyrs of early Tuscan art. Nor is the style of these essays less wan than their thought. The author hovers hopelessly about a verbal felicity or a happy rhythm, and never actually attains either. The book is the fruit of a spirit that lacks neither charm nor distinction, but always the ardor to embody these qualities in a form of quite authentic memorableness.

Finance.

THE TURN IN THE MONEY MARKETS.

During several months, it has been a matter of frequent comment and warning that it was no longer safe to ignore the probable influence of a rise in the autumn money markets. Last year, the month of September opened with the demand for money to use in ordinary trade at very low ebb; the New York surplus bank reserve stood at $65,000,000, almost the highest recorded level. Money rates, therefore, continued low; demand loans on the Stock Exchange ruled at 2 per cent. for a good part of the autumn, and went no higher than 4½ per cent. at any time; European money rates were similarly low and Europe a ready lender in New York, and the money market presented no obstacle to Stock Exchange speculation for the rise with borrowed money. The present month of September opened with the New York surplus bank reserve down to $18,000,000, hardly above the average for the time of year. Trade activity, notably in this country, had increased rapidly as compared with a year ago; European banks, already heavy lenders, began to look askance at the New York market, and a speculation of unusual violence was under way in Wall Street.

Two visible weather-signs have given evidence of a changed condition. A week ago, call money at New York, for the first time in five months, rose to 3 per cent., and loans on time advanced 1 per cent. over the prevalent rate of September's opening. This week, the Imperial Bank of Germany, whose action on its official discount rate is often the harbinger of European money conditions generally, put up the rate from 3½ to 4 per cent., and the cables informed us that the action was expressly designed to check the excessive stock speculation of the day. But the really impressive incident was the change in the New York surplus bank reserve.

At the close of July, when the New York Associated Banks reported a surplus of $34,259,000 over the 25 per cent. reserve required against deposits, it was possible to say that so large a figure had been reached at that date in only two years of the decade past—1908 and 1904; furthermore, that the surplus was more than twice as large as in such years as 1907, 1906, 1905, or 1902. The weekly bank report of Saturday, September 11, showed conditions so greatly changed that the surplus, $3,166,000, was smaller than that of the corresponding date in any but two of the fifteen past

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years. Those two exceptions, 1902 and 1899, were years of excessively disordered autumn money markets; both witnessed deficits in the bank reserve, and Wall Street call money rates rose to 35 per cent. in the one season and to 186 in the other.

This change within six weeks in the bank position came as a consequence of decreased cash reserves. Since the end of July, cash holdings of the New York banks had diminished $43,000,000. Such decrease is a normal incident of the season; it is expected at the ending of an August and the opening of a September. There are always heard in the midsummer months, both from Wall Street and from the farming West, cheerful assurances that the West is now so rich in independent wealth that this time it will not have to call on the Eastern markets to "help move the crops." But what the authors of these assurances forget is that this money of its own which the West proposed to use was deposited in New York and had been rented out, for a modest consideration, for New York banks to lend on Wall Street during the dull months of the agricultural year. When the Western banks needed their money back again, they quite naturally drew on the same deposits.

Now a loss of cash reserves on such a scale necessitates, in an ordinary year, curtailment of loans—especially of loans to Stock Exchange speculators—to square with the reduced resources. No such curtailment has occurred this season; as a result, the banks were brought, two weeks ago, face to face with the possibility of an exhausted surplus.

Under such circumstances, there remained four possible courses of procedure. Stock Exchange speculation, the greatest absorbent of the surplus bank funds in this city, might be resolutely curbed, and liquidation of loans attained through that expedient. Inland banks with credit deposits in New York institutions might be induced to withdraw those deposits, thus decreasing the liabilities of the New York banks, and to lend the same deposits out directly, for their own account, to the same borrowers as before. European credit might be drawn upon, whereby loans now standing on the books of New York banks might be virtually transferred to the books of foreign lenders, the borrowers again not being disturbed. Or, finally, the position might be taken that the borrower has a right to the money, and that, deficit or no deficit, he will go on borrowing.

All of these four expedients have at times been used. In 1902 particularly, the banks themselves took a hand in putting a stop, through calling in their Stock Exchange loans, to the reckless speculations of the so-called "Gates pool." In most of our recent autumn speculations, the inland banks have turned a good part of their New York deposits into loans. In both 1905 and 1906, "shifting of loans to Europe" was employed on an extensive scale. And in 1905, the time unquestionably came when banks reported a weekly deficit in reserves with no apparent effort to adjust things.

One of these expedients has already been applied. When call money went to 3 per cent. in Wall Street last week, the inland banks loaned out their New York funds for their own account, thus relieving the loan and deposit account of the New York Associated Banks. The bank statement of the ensuing Saturday, September 18, showed the extraordinary reduction, in the New York bank loans, of $30,600,000; as a result of which, the surplus reserve increased $8,900,000. This did not arrest either the harvest outflow of currency or the firmness of money rates. In fact, it was recalled that when, under very similar circumstances and at exactly this time of year in 1905, a similar "shifting process" cut down loans $30,000,000 in one week, $20,000,000 in the next, and $9,000,000 in the next, nevertheless continuance of the heavy demand from stock exchange speculators so far offset this artificial relief as to create a deficit in bank reserves in November and drive call money, at the end of the year, to 125 per cent.

Is such a result at all probable this season? It is difficult to say. The trade demand for money, here and abroad, is very much greater than it was a year ago, but probably very much less than in 1905. That is in favor of the present bank position and of the Stock Exchange speculation. Other considerations are not so clearly to our advantage. Europe's markets are not the recourse which on some previous similar occasions they have been. Wall Street does not enjoy the unbounded credit which was offered to it by the great European banks in 1906; the country has no such accumulated foreign credit fund on trade account as it possessed at this time in 1901 and 1904. Europe, like ourselves, has passed through 1907, and the balance on merchandise trade account stands far more heavily against us now than at any time in a dozen years.

There is always left the expedient of gold imports, to replenish our bank reserves. But gold imports come in response to such a fall in foreign exchange as is commonly brought about, either through a very large excess of merchandise exportations, or through a very sharp rise in money at New York. The first we cannot hope to have. The second may come to pass; but it will hardly arrive with the aid and comfort of the powerful borrowers for Stock Exchange speculation. Tight money brings in foreign gold; but it also, and for obvious reasons, has an awkward way of knocking down the price of stocks.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anatomy and Physiology for Nurses. Compiled by D. C. Kimber. Third edition revised by C. E. Gray. Macmillan. $2.50 net.

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